



This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

Usage guidelines

Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

We also ask that you:

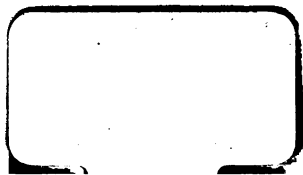
- + *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.
- + *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.
- + *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.
- + *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

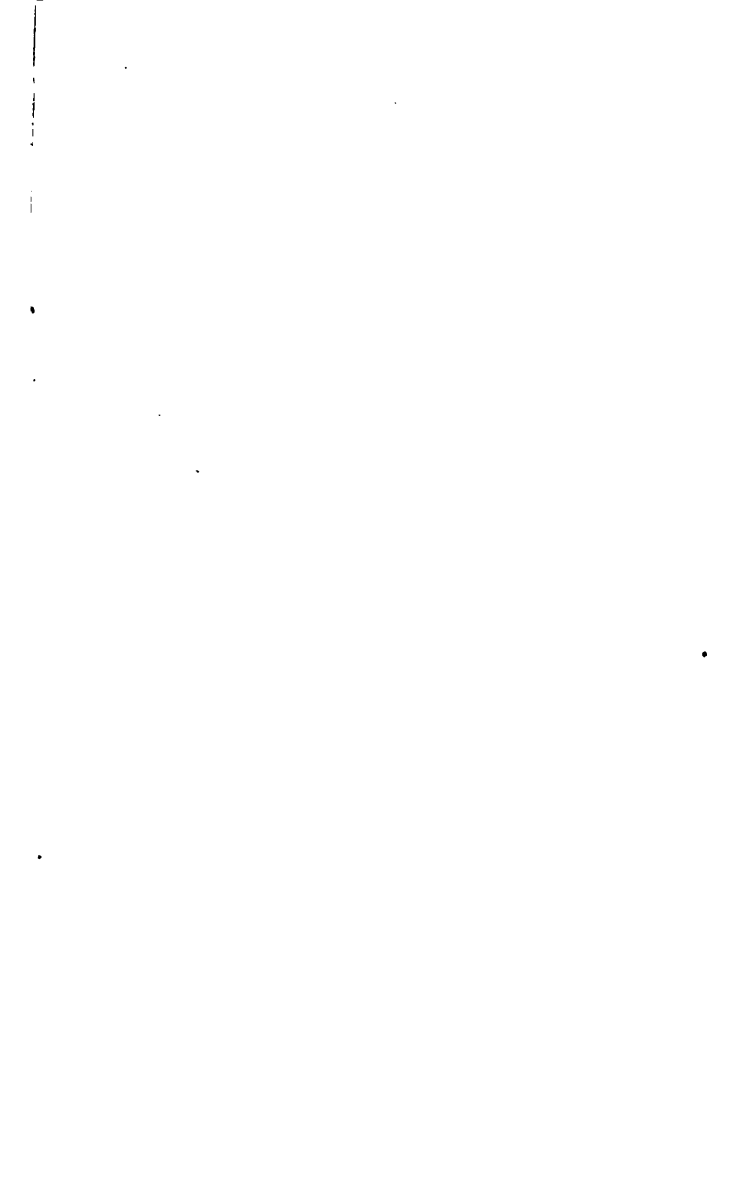
About Google Book Search

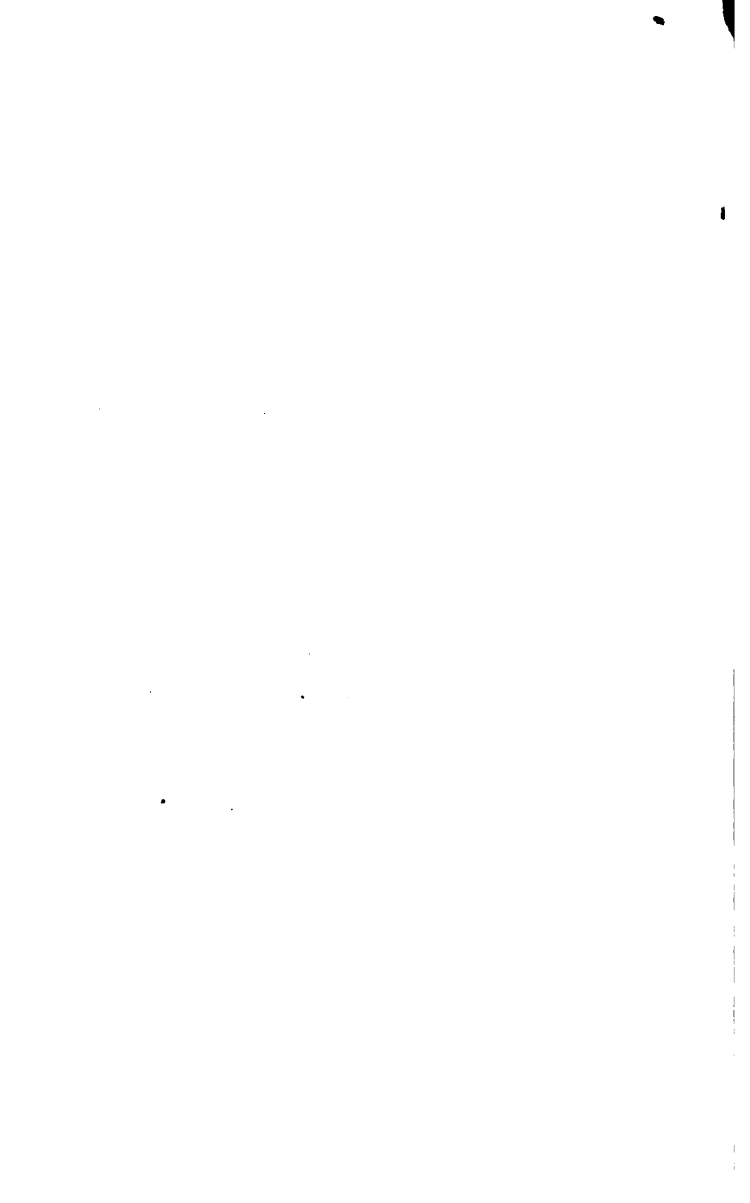
Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at <http://books.google.com/>



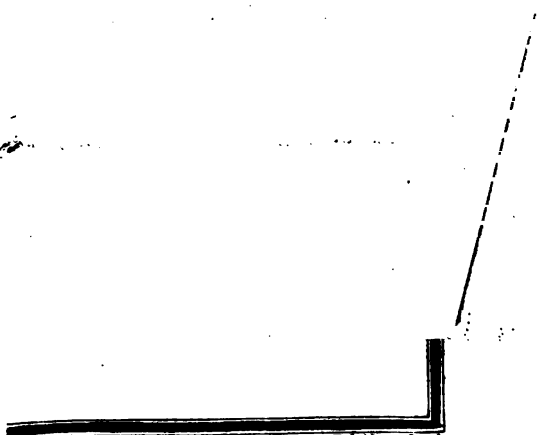
3 3433 08240705 1



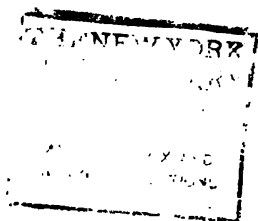








Seale & Son, 45, Strand



THE NEW YORK
PUBLIC LIBRARY

ASTOR LENOX AND
TILDEN FOUNDATIONS

DICTIONARY
OF
UNIVERSAL HISTORY,
Chronology,
AND
HISTORICAL BIOGRAPHY.

COMPILED FROM THE LATEST AND BEST AUTHORITIES.

WITH MAPS AND PORTRAITS.

LONDON.

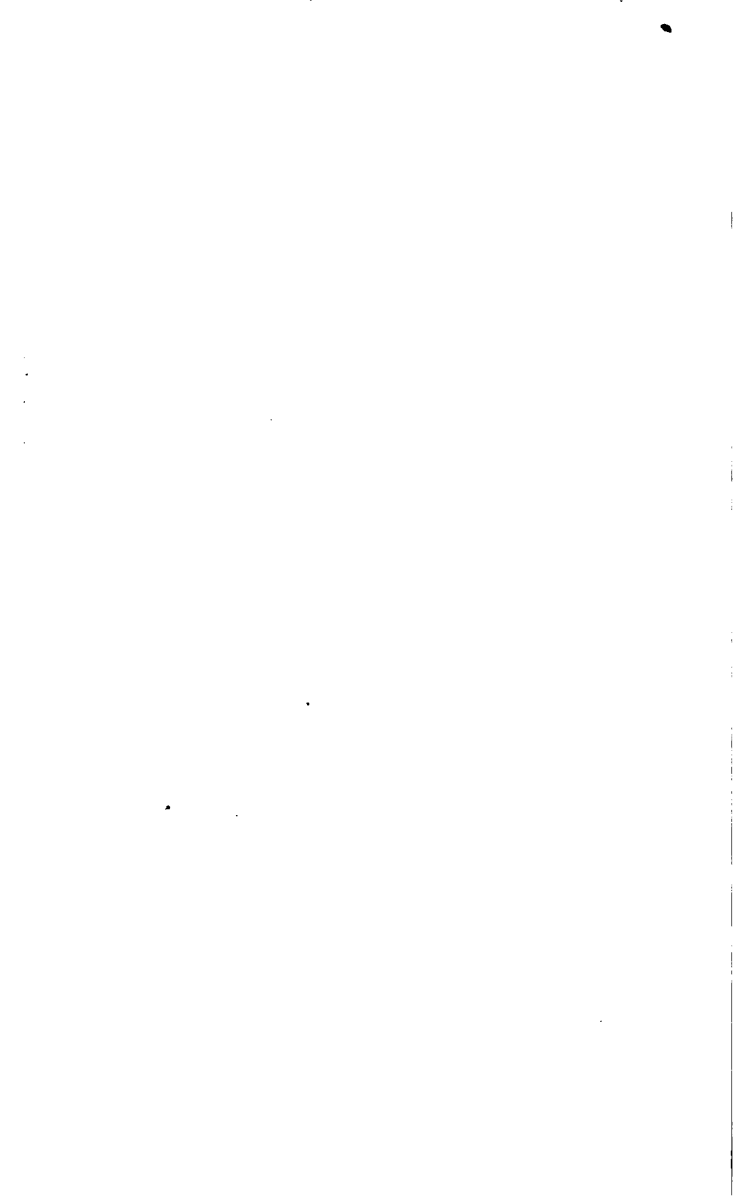
**PRINTED FOR SIR RICHARD PHILLIPS, AND CO.
BRIDGE STREET.**

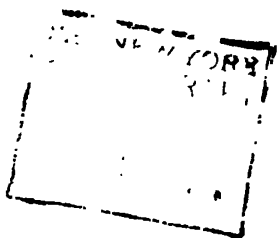
1823.

Price 10s. 6d. boards, or 12s. 6d. calf gilt.

B 2

Dictionary
BA





**THE NEW YORK
PUBLIC LIBRARY**

ASTOR LENOX AND
TILDEN FOUNDATIONS

DICTIONARY

OF

UNIVERSAL HISTORY,

Chronology,

AND

HISTORICAL BIOGRAPHY.

COMPILED FROM THE LATEST AND BEST AUTHORITIES.

WITH MAPS AND PORTRAITS.

LONDON.

PRINTED FOR SIR RICHARD PHILLIPS, AND CO
BRIDGE STREET.

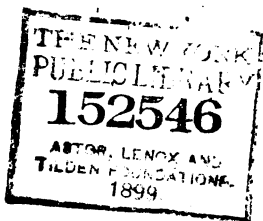
1823.

Price 10s. 6d. boards, or 12s. 6d. calf gilt.

1823

1823

BIA



PREFACE

THE present Digest of History will be received as a desideratum in English literature:—for it is remarkable, that although we have dictionaries of almost every kind, we have no similar book of reference on the interesting subjects of general History.

Even our biographical dictionaries, however voluminous, carefully exclude *historical* characters; there consequently exist no ready means of acquiring information relative to any of the extraordinary personages who have either adorned or disgraced the annals of the world. No person could believe, who had not examined the work, that the new “Biographical Dictionary,” in thirty-two octavo volumes, does not contain such names as Alexander the Great, Pompey, Julius Cæsar, Augustus, Charlemagne, and others of equal celebrity—yet such is the fact; and no name celebrated in history is to be found even in that voluminous production.

The only work in our language which contains historical characters, and an alphabetical arrangement of events, is an old translation of the now obsolete dictionary of Moreri. But that much-quoted work terminated with the seventeenth century, whilst it is compiled with little regard to morals or philosophy, abounding in indecencies, and in vulgar and superstitious legends, which the better

taste and more enlightened information of the present age, have agreed to expunge as improper for perusal, or unworthy of attention.

In this volume, though little use could be made of Moreri, yet every valuable fact contained in his Dictionary has been preserved, while better and much improved standards of truth have also been sedulously consulted. The compilers have, of course, on such a subject, and in such a place, not affected to make discoveries, but they have been contented to perform the humble duties of lexicography with studied reservedness in regard to their own opinions, and with a scrupulous adherence to facts; and when these were doubtful, they have recorded the highest probabilities. Their production may therefore be consulted with confidence, as a compendium of established facts in History, Chronology and Historical Biography, not heretofore to be found in any single work in our language.

With respect to the size of the volume, it would have been a more easy task to expand the copious materials into several volumes, than to compress them into the present bulk; though the matter here arranged, would, if printed in a larger type, have made a considerable octavo volume. But for the purposes of easy consultation, a portable book has been deemed a valuable feature of the plan, particularly as viewed in connection with the series of dictionaries on the various arts and sciences, of which this volume is to be considered as the companion. In that Series it is a necessary term; but considered by itself, and as a work standing alone, it possesses its own peculiar features of utility and gratification, scarcely exceeded by any volume of its size and form.

London, January 2, 1823.

J. M.

ENGRAVINGS

CONTAINED IN THIS VOLUME. .

THE ANCIENT AND MODERN WORLD

ALEXANDER THE GREAT.

ALFRED.

ASIA MINOR.

BRITAIN

JULIUS CESAR.

CHARLEMAGNE.

CHARLES V.

CHARLES XII.

CROMWELL.

EGYPT.

GREECE.

HENRY IV.

ITALY.

MARLBOROUGH.

NAPOLEON.

NELSON.

PALESTINE.

PETER, CZAR OF RUSSIA.

ROME AND ATHENS.

SCIPIO.

WASHINGTON.

CHART OF THE DURATION OF EMPIRES

METHODICAL CYCLOPEDIA.

It is proposed, with all convenient expedition, and as far as possible, on the first of subsequent months, to publish the following series of Dictionary, printed on the same type and of the same size as this Dictionary of History; the whole under the superintendence of JAMES MITCHELL, A. M., either of them complete in itself, and the whole forming a Methodized Cyclopaedia of human knowledge in twelve portable volumes:—

2. A DICTIONARY OF CHEMISTRY, MINERALOGY, AND GEOLOGY.
3. A DICTIONARY OF MATHEMATICS, NATURAL AND EXPERIMENTAL PHILOSOPHY.
4. A DICTIONARY OF THE ARTS, USEFUL AND ORNAMENTAL, INCLUDING THE PROCESSES OF MANUFACTORIES.
5. A DICTIONARY OF BIOGRAPHY.
6. A DICTIONARY OF GEOGRAPHY.
7. A DICTIONARY OF LAW.
8. A DICTIONARY OF MEDICINE, SURGERY, AND PHARMACY.
9. A DICTIONARY OF THEOLOGY AND ETHICS.
10. A DICTIONARY OF NATURAL HISTORY AND BOTANY.
11. A DICTIONARY OF METAPHYSICS, LOGIC, CRITICISM, AND THE BELLES-LETTRES.
12. A DICTIONARY OF ARCHÆOLOGY, INCLUDING ANTIQUITIES, BRITISH AND FOREIGN, WITH CLASSICAL AND ORIENTAL LITERATURE.

DICTIONARY

OF

HISTORY.

A.

ABRAS (Shah) the Great, 7th king of Persia, ascended the throne in 1335. By the assistance of the English in 1322, he took Ormus from the Portuguese. He died in 1329. He made Isfahan the capital of Persia.

ABBASSIDES, the names of a dynasty of caliphs, whose capital was Bagdad, and who, during the eighth and ninth centuries, governed Persia, Arabia, and Syria. Their names were Abul-Abba; Al-Mausur, who built Bagdad in 762, and raised the Saracen empire to its greatest splendor; Al-Modi; Musa el-Hadi; Harun-ur-Raschid, the most celebrated, who died in 808; Al-Amin; Al-Mamun; and Al-Motaseur, under whom the governors of several provinces became independent, and the Caliphate was confined to Bagdad.

ABBAYE DE VICOGNES, a town of France, celebrated for a battle between the confederates and the French in 1793. It was followed by the siege and capture of Valenciennes.

ABDALLEE (Shah), emperor of Eastern Persia, who carried on various wars against the great Moguls, and in 1761 obtained a great victory at Panikut. He died in 1763, and was succeeded by Timurn (Shah), who, in 1792, was succeeded by Zeman Shah.

ABDALONIMUS, a descendant of the kings of Sidon, once so poor, that he worked in a garden to maintain himself: but when Alexander took Sidon, he made him king, in the room of Strato the deposed monarch, and enlarged his possessions on account of the great disinterestedness of his conduct.

ABEL, king of Denmark, the son of Valdimir II. assassinated his

brother Eric in 1750, and took possession of his throne. He was put to death by the Frisians in a revolt.

ABERCROMBIE (Ralph), who rose from a cornetcy to the rank of general in the British army, and was mortally wounded while repulsing the French at Alexandria in 1801. He commanded the advanced guard in the action of Cateau, conducted the retreat of the troops out of Holland, and took Demerara, Essequibo, St. Lucie, St. Vincent, and Trinidad. In gratitude for his services, a public monument was erected in St. Paul's, and a peerage conferred on his family.

ABRADATES, a king of Susa, who, when his wife Panthea had been taken prisoner by Cyrus, and humanely treated, surrendered himself and his troops to the conqueror. He was killed in the first battle he undertook in the cause of Cyrus, and his wife stabbed herself on his corpse. Cyrus raised a monument on their tomb.

ABRAHAM, the patriarch, was born A. M. 2004. He appears to have been one of the minor princes of the east, and was honoured by being chosen as the source of the Jewish nation, and the progenitor of Christ. Having received a son in a miraculous way, he gave proof of his obedience to God, by preparing to sacrifice him, at his command, and hence received the appellation of "Father of the Faithful."

ABU-BIKER, founded in 1050 the empire of the Almoravides, now Morocco; and also made conquests in Spain in 1091.

ABUDA, a town of Italy, where Theodoric, king of the Avars, defeated Odoacer in 480.

ABU-OBEDIAH, a companion of

HISTORY.

Mohammed, who, after conquering Syria and a great part of Palestine, was carried off by a pestilence, A. D. 639.

ABYDOS, a city of Asia, built by the Milesians, and famous for the bridge of boats which Xerxes built there across the Hellespont. The inhabitants being besieged by Philip, the father of Perseus, devoted themselves to death with their families, rather than fall into the hands of the enemy.

ABYSSINIA, said to be the same with the ancient country of Saba, or Sheba, and governed in the time of Solomon by a queen who visited him, and who, according to the annals of the country, was, on that occasion, struck with other feelings besides those of admiration, and is reported and believed to have given to the kingdom of Saba a monarch, the absolute progeny of Solomon. The religion of the empire is that of the Christian, and they have a regular communication with the patriarch of Alexandria. In their succession of regal governors, they reckon a series of queens for 200 years, after whom, to the present time, the male line has always borne the dignity. Their annals are necessarily confined to the transactions of their own country, and those immediately round them; being a people, both from situation and inclination little given to migrate, either for curiosity or conquest. About the year 1505, they narrowly escaped falling under the sway of the Turkish empire, owing their safety, probably, to the Portuguese of India. Glandione, an enterprising young monarch, lost his life in defence of his country. Succeeding monarchs acted differently towards their deliverers, according to their own feelings; but, in the reign of Bocimius, in 1585, one of the Jesuits attempting to change the religion to that of the Pope, and following the attempt in a succeeding reign, the most violent opposition was made in the first instance; and, in the second, the unfortunate missionaries were murdered before their arrival in the kingdom; nor, though the quarrel was taken up

by a succeeding king, (who was murdered,) could they obtain a footing in the country. For a short time, indeed, they received court-complaisance, in the reign of Orestes, who had usurped the throne,—the only person not of the blood of Solomon that ever filled it. On the resumption by the true line, the missionaries were apprehended, and making a parade of the powers of St. Peter before these barbarians, were stoned to death. Notwithstanding this, their successors came to the court as artists, in the time of "*Yasous the Little*." During his reign Mr. Bruce arrived in this country, on his celebrated journey to discover the source of the Nile, which he was so fortunate to effect in the country of the Agows. His travels furnished the means of giving information to Europe respecting this very singular people, who, surrounded on all sides by Pagans and Mahometans, retain the profession only of Christians. The later travels and embassy of Mr. Salt have added little to his information. They received his presents from the Prince-Regent, and a packet of Ethiopic psalters with great courtesy.

ACARNANIA, anciently Curetis, a country of Epirus, at the north of the Ionian sea, divided from Ætolia by the Achelous. It was a free state, though rather attached to the kings of Macedon; but Leucas, the capital, being taken by assault by Lucius Flaminus, they submitted to the Romans, retaining their own laws till the destruction of Corinth, when they became part of the province of Achaia.

ACHAIA. The descendants of Achæus, who at first inhabited the country near Argos, being driven out by the Heraclidæ eighty years after the Trojan war, they retired among the Ionians, whose twelve cities they seized and kept. The names of these cities are Pelene, Egira, Egæ, Bura, Tritæa, Egion, Rhyppæ, Olenos, Helice, Patræ, Dyme, and Pharsæ. The inhabitants of these three last began a famous confederacy, 284 years B. C. which continued formidable upwards of 100 years, under the

name of the *Achaean League*, and was most illustrious whilst supported by the splendid virtues and abilities of Aratus and Philopœmen. Their arms were directed against the *Ætolians* for three years, with the assistance of Philip of Macedonia, and they grew powerful by the accession of neighbouring states, and freed their country from foreign slavery, till at last they were attacked by the Romans, and, after one year's hostilities, the Achaean League was totally destroyed, B. C. 147. The Achæans extended the borders of their country by conquest, and even planted colonies in Magna Græcia.

ACHILLAS, a general of Ptolemy, who murdered Pompey the Great.

ACHILLES, a hero of the Trojan war, of whom many fabulous tales are related. The utmost of his history, indeed, exists in a work of fiction, forming the entire scope of Homer's celebrated poem the *Iliad*. That which is most credible is, that he was a prince, though not of a powerful state, of very considerable personal prowess and courage, and that he was acknowledged as the bravest though not the head of all the princes engaged in the Trojan expedition.

ACHMET I. Emperor of the Turks, in 1693; his reign was disturbed by insurrections, and by a pretender to his throne. He died in 1617.

ACHMET II. reigned from 1691 to 1695.

ACHMET III. the same who received Charles XII. at Bender, conquered the Morea from the Venetians in 1715, and defeated Prince Eugene at Peterweraddin and Belgrade. He was dethroned and imprisoned in 1730.

ACHMED, the leader of a band of Turks, who in 808 made himself master of Egypt.

ACQUITAINE, a province of France, in which Pepin of France obtained a victory over Charles the Bald, 844.

ACRÉ, anciently Aco, a city and fortress in Syria, at which, Sir Sydney Smith frustrated the assaults of the French. It was also

celebrated in the crusades, and particularly in connexion with our Richard I. *Cœur-de-Lion*.

ACTIUM, the name of a sea-fight which may, on several accounts, be considered as one of the most important which ever took place. The competition was for the empire of the world, and the rivals those who had, by their superior talents, already held it conjointly. Not was the amount of force unproportionate to the importance of the contest. Anthony's fleet consisted of 500 vessels, and his army contained 100,000 foot, and 12,000 horse; ably commanded, and numbering among its personal officers no fewer than eight kings. Octavius had but half the number of vessels, and only 80,000 infantry, but his cavalry counted as many as his opponent. The differing characters of these armaments would almost indicate the differing dispositions of their commanders. Anthony appeared as one possessed of empire, who needed, to maintain his power, little more than to display it. Octavius, on the other hand, seemed conscious of his antagonist's possession, and aware that it required all the exertion of a soldier to dispossess him. The vessels of Anthony were of unwieldy dimensions, sumptuously furnished; Octavius's light, and fitted merely for action. Anthony's crews were principally pressed men; Octavius's personal friends, or soldiers of fortune, practised in naval engagements. Octavius first offered fight. Anthony would have preferred an action on land, which was certainly his forte; but being overruled in this by Cleopatra, he burned several of the inferior vessels, and reserving sixty of the best of the Egyptian fleet, crowded them with 22,000 soldiers, and 3000 spear-men and slingers. After four days' delay from storms, the two fleets rowed against each other in order of battle. Anthony appointed his officers, and gave directions to the pilots to remain at anchor. About noon, however, the men, impatient of delay, and confident in the size and height of their vessels, moved forward with

their left division. Caesar's right immediately drew back, and, having allured them out of the streights, surrounded them with his light ships. He needed all the advantages of his stratagem. The height of Anthony's vessels, and the formidable manner in which they were armed, seemed to preclude the possibility of boarding, and though three or four of Octavius's were engaged to one of his, the utmost they could do was to withstand the missiles which, from the eminence of those vessels, were with comparative safety poured down upon them. Thus, though Anthony's centre was hard pressed, while Agrippa, with his left division, was aiming to encompass the right of Anthony, all the divisions fought valiantly, and the victory remained doubtful. It was at this juncture that Cleopatra, the unhappy adviser of the sea-engagement, fled with her sixty galleys, through the midst of the others engaged in action. Anthony instinctively followed her; and though the remaining vessels maintained the combat till night, they then surrendered. Thus closed the battle of Actium, followed immediately by the voluntary deaths of Anthony and Cleopatra, and the accession of Octavius to the undisputed empire of the world as Augustus Cæsar.

ADIGE, a river of Italy, famous for sundry battles between the French and the Austrians, during the revolutionary wars.

ADRIAN, the 15th emperor of Rome. He is represented as an active, learned, warlike, and austere general. He came to Britain, where he built a wall between the modern towns of Carlisle and Newcastle, 80 miles long, to protect the Britons from the incursions of the Caledonians. He killed in battle 600,000 Jews who had rebelled, and built a city on the ruins of Jerusalem, which he called *Ælia*. In the beginning of his reign, he followed the virtues of his adopted father and predecessor Trajan; he remitted all arrears due to his treasury for sixteen years, and publicly burnt the account-books, that his word might not be sus-

pected. His peace with the Parthians proceeded from a wish of punishing the other enemies of Rome, more than from the effects of fear. The travels of Adrian were not for the display of imperial pride, but to see whether justice was distributed impartially: and public favour was courted by a condescending behaviour, and the meaner familiarity of bathing with the common people. It is said that he wished to enrol Christ among the gods of Rome; but his apparent lenity towards the Christians was disapproved, by the erection of a statue to Jupiter on the spot where Jesus rose from the dead, and one to Venus on mount Calvary. The weight of disease becoming intolerable, Adrian attempted to destroy himself; and when prevented, he exclaimed, that the lives of others were in his hands, but not his own. He died of a dysentery at Baine, July 10, 138, in the 72d year of his age.

ADRIAN IV. (pope,) was born at Langley, near St. Albans. His name was Nicholas Brekespere. Eugenius III. made him a cardinal in 1146, and in 1148 sent him legate to Denmark and Norway, which nations he converted to the Christian faith. In 1154 he was chosen pope, on which, Henry II. king of England, sent the abbot of St. Albans, with three bishops, to congratulate him. The pope, disregarding the slight formerly put upon him, granted considerable privileges to the monastery of St. Albans, and a bull to Henry for the conquest of Ireland. In 1155, he excommunicated the king of Sicily; and about the same time, the emperor Frederic, meeting the pope near Sutrin, held his stirrup while he mounted on horseback; after which, his holiness conducted him to Rome, and consecrated him king of the Romans in St. Peter's church. Adrian left the papal territory in a better state than he found it; yet died, not without suspicion of poison, in 1159.

ÆGOSPOTAMOS, a river in the Thracian Chersonesus, where the Athenian fleet was defeated by Lysander, B. C. 405.

ÆMILIANUS, (C. Julius) a Moor, raised by the army to the imperial dignity, on the assassination of Gallus. He was killed by his own troops, having reigned only four months.

ÆNEAS, a prince of doubtful history, the particulars of which constitute the fiction of the *Æneid*. That poem represents him as a demi-god, the son of Anchises and Venus, and recites for his early history the pictures of his valour, drawn of him in another fiction, the *Iliad*. On the destruction of Troy, he is said to have carried his father on his shoulders, leading his little boy, Ascanius, in his hand. He is then fabled to have retired to Mount Ida, built a fleet, and sailed in quest of a settlement. Having encountered every toil and peril incidental to his situation, he at last landed on the coast of Latium, and was hospitably entertained by the king.

ÆOLUS, king of *Æolia*: being the inventor of sails, and a great astronomer, as well as musician, he was familiar with the harp. The poets have called him the god of the wind.

ÆSCULAPIUS, thought to have been the inventor of medicine. He was, no doubt, a person gifted with extraordinary skill in the knowledge and use of sanatives, and thence universally considered as a god. Divine honours were paid him in various cities of Greece, and a temple was built to him in Rome, after the devastation of a plague. He is represented with a large beard, holding in his hand a staff, round which was wreathed a serpent; his other hand was supported on the head of a serpent.

ÆTIUS, a famous general in the reign of Valentinian III. He was of particular service to the emperor Valentinian, and repulsed Attila. But Valentinian suspecting his fidelity, stabbed him in 454.

ÆTNA, a mountain of Sicily, now called Gibello, famous for its volcano, which, for about 3000 years, has thrown out fire at intervals. It is two miles in perpendicular height, and measures 180 miles round at the base, with an ascent of thirty miles. Its crater

forms a circle about three miles and a half in circumference, and its top is covered with snow and smoke at the same time, whilst the sides of the mountain, from the great fertility of the soil, exhibit a rich scenery of cultivated fields and blooming vineyards. Pindar is the first who mentions an eruption of *Ætna*; and the silence of Homer on the subject is considered as a proof that the fires of the mountain were unknown in his age. From the time of Pythagoras, the supposed date of the first volcanic appearance, to the battle of Pharsalia, it is computed that *Ætna* had 100 eruptions.

ÆTOLIA, a country bounded by Epirus, Acarnania, and Locris, supposed to be about the middle of Greece. The inhabitants were covetous and illiberal, and were little known in Greece till, after the ruins of Athens and Sparta, they assumed consequence in the country, and afterwards made themselves formidable as the allies of Rome, and as its enemies, till they were conquered by Fulvius.

AFGHANS, inhabitants of the mountains of Gaur, who established a dynasty in India between 1183 and 1525, and made Delhi the seat of their empire, about 1210.

AFRICA. The third grand division of the world.

Africa may be divided into four parts:—1. The country of the whites, which comprehends Egypt, Barbary, Numidia, and Zaara the Great Desert;—2. That of the blacks, consisting of Nigritia, Guinea, and Nubia;—3. Ethiopia generally, including Abyssinia, and the immense regions thence to the Red Sea and Indian ocean; and—4. The islands. Of all these divisions, the inhabitants have, probably, distinctive characters and habits. In ancient times Africa knew only the distinction of Egypt and Libya, but as the conquests and commerce of the greater empires extended, it was divided into several countries, as, Mauritania, Numidia, Africa Proper, Tripolis, Cyrenaica, Marmarica, Ethiopia, and Garamantia. Its modern divisions are Barbary, including Morocco, Algiers, Tunis,

Tripoli, and Barca; Egypt, Bile-
gulgerid, Zaara, Negroland; Gui-
nea, Nubia, Abyssinia, and Abec,
in Upper Ethiopia; Loango, Congo,
Angola, and Benguela, in Lower
Guinea; Matapan, Ajan, Zangue-
bar, Monomotapa, Monemugi, So-
ala, Terra de Natolia, and Caf-
fraria. The principal consideration
of Africa now lies in the traffic of
slaves from the coast of Guinea.

AGAMEMNON, general of the
 Greeks at the siege of Troy, king of
 Mycenæ and Argos. He was brother
 to Menelaus, and son of Pliathenes.

AGATHOCLES, a beautiful cour-
 tizan of Egypt. One of the Ptole-
 mies destroyed his wife Eurydice to
 marry her. She, with her brother,
 long governed the kingdom, and
 attempted to murder the king's son.

AGATHOCLES, a lascivious and
 ignoble youth, son of a potter,
 who, by entering in the Sicilian
 army, arrived to the greatest hon-
 ours, and made himself master of
 Syracuse. He reduced all Sicily
 under his power, but being de-
 feated at Himera by the Cartha-
 ginians, he carried the war into
 Africa, where, for four years, he
 extended his conquests over his
 enemies. He afterwards passed
 into Italy, and made himself mas-
 ter of Crotona. He died in his
 72d year, B. C. 289, after a reign
 of twenty-eight years.

AGATHOCLES, the Sicilian ty-
 rant, proclaimed himself king of
 Sicily. He died of poison, B. C. 286.

AGESILAUS, king of Sparta,
 and general of Greece in the Pelo-
 ponnesian war, acquired great re-
 nown by his exploits against the
 Persians; and was engaged against
 the Thebans and Athenians, but
 was defeated by Epaminondas. He
 died B. C. 362.

AGHRIM, in Ireland, where was
 gained the decisive victory over
 the troops of James II. in 1691.

AGINCOURT, a small town of
 France, celebrated for the battle
 fought there, 1415, betwixt the
 English under Henry V. and the
 French under the constable d'Al-
 bert, and a host of the first nobility
 of the realm. It is remarkable,
 both for its circumstances and
 issue. Henry's army, originally
 30,000, but wasted by the pro-

tracted siege of Harfleur, and by
 the ravages of the flux to half that
 number, was making the best of
 its way to Calais, to embark, fol-
 lowed by a force whose amount
 varies in different authors from
 70 to 100,000. This overwhelming
 force he had scarcely the good
 fortune to escape, while searching
 to pass the Soume, and no sooner
 had he accomplished that object
 than the French also passed, and
 posted themselves betwixt the
 English army and Calais.

Henry, finding his retreat inter-
 cepted, drew up his little army on
 a narrow ground, betwixt two
 woods, and waited the attack.
 During the suspense, he received
 offers from the French to treat
 for the ransom of himself and army.
 These, however, he indignantly re-
 jected, and the engagement took
 place on the ensuing day. Henry,
 to compensate for the small num-
 ber of his men, entrenched them
 in companies within fences of
 pointed stakes, then first used, but
 since generally adopted in the
 practice of war under the name of
 chevaux-de-frize.

This battle was but a repetition
 of that at Poitiers, both as to its
 conduct and success. The French
 charged with the same contempt
 of danger and discipline; the Eng-
 lish received them with the same
 cool and deliberate intrepidity.
 The former were led on by a ge-
 nerous nobility, the latter were
 animated by the presence of their
 king, and the memory of ancient
 glory. The event was such as
 might be expected; the French
 were disordered by their own im-
 petuosity, and their numbers only
 served to increase their confusion
 and disgrace. Their cavalry were
 entangled in the heavy ground on
 which they engaged, and, incapa-
 ble of flight or resistance, were
 slaughtered by the battle-axes of
 the English. The constable him-
 self, the count de Nevers, and the
 duke of Brabant, the dukes of
 Alençon and Barre, the counts of
 Vaudemont and Marle, scorning to
 survive this national calamity,
 rushed into the midst of the ta-
 lant, and perished, with above
 10,000 of their followers. The dukes

of Orleans and Bourbon, and several other persons of distinction, and above 14,000 of inferior rank, (making a total greater than that of their captors) were taken prisoners: while, on the side of the English, the duke of York was the only person of consequence who fell.

AGIS III. king of Sparta, was the grandson of Agesilaus, and began to reign B. C. 346. He stirred up several of the Grecian states against Alexander, but was slain in a battle he fought with the Macedonians in the year 337 B. C.

AGIS IV. king of Sparta, was the son of Eudimadas. He endeavoured to reform the constitution and manners of Sparta, for which he was basely put to death by his countrymen, B. C. 241.

AGLABITES, caliphs, who ruled on the N. African coast in the ninth century, and established themselves in Sicily, Malta, and Calabria.

AGRICOLA (Cnæius Julius), a Roman commander, was born A. D. 40. He served first in Britain, was next made quæstor of Asia, and became tribune of the people, and prætor under Nero. He was then sent into Britain, and reduced the twentieth legion to obedience. On his return to Rome, he was raised to the rank of patrician, and made governor of Aquitania, in Gaul. In 77 he was chosen consul with Domitian; and the next year was appointed governor of Britain, where he restored tranquillity, and brought the natives to a love of the Roman language and manners. He extended his conquests into Scotland, and built a chain of forts from the Clyde to the frith of Forth, to prevent the incursions of the inhabitants of the north. He defeated Galgacus, and made peace with the Caledonians. On the accession of Domitian, Agricola had a triumph decreed him, and was recalled. He then went into retirement, and died A. D. 93.

AGRIGENTUM, now *Girgenti*, a town of Sicily, anciently famous for its hospitality and luxury. It once contained 200,000 inhabitants, with a monarch, but was brought

under the power of Syracuse, under Phalaris, B. C. 571; and it was afterwards in the possession of the Carthaginians. It boasts more venerable remains of antiquity than any other town of Sicily.

AGRIPPA I. grandson of Herod, who made him governor of Tiberias, but Agrippa having disgusted him by his profligacy went to Rome, and through the influence of Caius, Germanicus's son, and of Claudius, was made Tetrarch of Trachonites, and king of Judea. In a persecution under him, St. James perished. The occasion and manner of his death, A. D. 44, are related, Acts, xii. 10—23, under the name of the patronymic Herod.

AGRIPPA, (Marcus) the friend of Augustus, who acquired great fame by his military exploits.

AGRIPPINA, the elder, was the wife of Germanicus Cæsar, whom she accompanied in his military expeditions. She was banished by Tiberius to a barren isle, where she died, A. D. 33.

AGRIPPINA the younger, daughter of the above. She was married to her uncle Claudius, the emperor, whom she poisoned, A. D. 54, to make way for her son Nero. That monster caused her to be assassinated, and exhibited to the senate a list of all the infamous crimes of which she had been guilty.

AHMED KHAN, was the first of the Moguls who professed Mohammedanism. He perished by a conspiracy formed against him, A. D. 1234.

AIX-LA-CHAPELLE, a celebrated city in Germany, on the borders of Belgium. It was the northern capital of Charlemagne, who held a splendid court here, and was buried in its cathedral. It is also famous in diplomacy for more than one congress of powers, and particularly for that in 1748, when peace was concluded between England, France, Holland, and several Germanic powers.

AJAX. The name of two heroes in the Trojan war (Telamon and Oileus). Their history is purely mythologic.

AIGNADEL, noted for the victory obtained there in 1589, by the

HISTORY.

celebrated French league over the Venetians.

AKBAR, sultan of the Moguls in 1556. He regained Delhi from the Patans, quelled several rebellions, conquered all the country of Bengal, and took Cashmeer and Scindi. His son Selim made an unsuccessful attempt to dethrone him, but was pardoned. Akbar died accidentally, 1605, by poison, which he had prepared for another.

ALARIC, king of the west, or Vici-Goths, who plundered Peloponnesus in 393, Italy in 401, and Rome in 409. He died in 410.

ALBA, a city of Latium, built by Ascanius, B. C. 1182, where the descendants of Æneas reigned 286 years. It was long the powerful rival of Rome, but was destroyed by the Romans, 665 B. C. and the inhabitants were carried to Rome.

ALBANIA, a pleasant and fertile tract of country, now called Schirwan, and East Georgia. It was at first divided into several petty kingdoms, but in the reign of Justinian II. was reduced to a Roman province.

ALBANIA, on the coast of the gulf of Venice, is a province of Turkey, and was lately governed by Ali Pacha. It was anciently called Epirus, and was the kingdom of Pyrrhus.

ST. ALBAN'S, noted for the victory obtained by the Yorkists over the Lancastrian party in England, 1455, when Henry II. was made prisoner; and again for that of the Lancasterians over the Yorkists, when queen Margaret released her captive husband.

ALBERONI (Julius) a cardinal, son of a gardener at Placentia, who was born in 1664. Having entered into orders, he became curate of a village near Parma, where he did the French army essential service; and so recommended himself to the duke de Vendome, that he took him to Madrid, where he got into the favour of the princess of Ursus, the favourite of Philip V. and through her rose to the rank of cardinal. He was, subsequently, through foreign influence, deprived of his posts, and banished to Rome. He died at Placentia in 1732.

ALBERT I. emperor and duke

of Austria, was crowned in 1308, after defeating and slaying his competitor Adolphus of Nassau. He was assassinated in 1308, by his nephew John, son of the duke of Suabia, whose paternal estates he had seized.

ALBERT, king of Sweden, elected to the throne in 1363, by the disaffected nobles, who had deposed Magnus II. maintained the kingdom against all his efforts, aided by Norway and Denmark. But falling into the same errors as his predecessor, those powers, at the instigation of the nobles, invaded Sweden, and took Albert prisoner, 1387. He recovered his freedom in 1394, on condition of ceding Stockholm to Norway; but, attempting to recover his throne, was again thrown into confinement at Mecklenburgh, where he died in 1412.

ALBERT, archduke of Austria, sixth son of the emperor Maximilian II. was born in 1559. Having embraced the ecclesiastical state, he obtained a cardinalship and the archbishopric of Toledo. In 1584 he was made viceroy of Portugal, and was afterwards commissioned to quell the insurrection in the Low Countries. Here, as well as at Nieuport, in 1600, he was unsuccessful, being defeated at the latter by Prince Maurice. He succeeded, however, in capturing Ostend after a siege of three years, but was, at last, necessitated to make a truce with the Dutch. He renounced his ecclesiastical character in 1596, in order to effect a marriage with Philip's daughter. He died in 1621.

ALBERT, margrave of Brandenburg, grand-master of the Teutonic order, and the first duke of Prussia, was born in 1490. In 1511, he entered into a war with Sigismund, king of Poland, in defence of the independence of the order, and by a peace concluded at Cracow, in 1525, took possession of Prussia as a fief of Poland. Soon after, by avowing himself a protestant, and marrying a princess of Denmark, he fell under the ban of the empire. He died in 1568.

ALBERT, margrave of Brandenburg, called the Alcibiades of Germany, was the son of Casimir,

margrave of Culmbach, and succeeded in 1541. He joined in the confederacy formed by Maurice, elector of Saxony, and other princes, against Charles V. He committed many cruel excesses in this war; notwithstanding which, he was admitted into favor with the emperor; but refusing to yield up, what he had taken from the ecclesiastical states, a league was formed against him, at the head of which was his old ally the elector of Saxony. A bloody battle was fought between these two princes in 1553, in which Maurice was slain and Albert wounded. He was afterwards put under the ban of the empire, and deprived of his possessions. He died in 1558.

ALBERT (Charles d') duke of Loynes, was born in 1578, was a favourite with Henry IV. and with his son, the dauphin, afterwards Louis XIII. Under this last monarch he rose to the highest honours, and procured the destruction of the marshal d'Ancre. After this he ruled the kingdom as he pleased; so that even his master was jealous and afraid of his power. He fomented the war with the Huguenots; but died in 1621, while besieging Montauban.

ALBERT (Jane d'), daughter of Margaret queen of Navarre, was married, at the age of eleven, to the duke of Cleves. In 1548 she espoused Antony de Bourbon, duke of Vendome, when the former marriage was annulled by the pope. It is related of her that during her delivery of a child, afterwards Henry IV., she actually sung a Bretonnise air, at the request of the duke her husband. On the death of her father, in 1555, she became queen of Navarre. In 1562, becoming independent by the death of her husband, she set herself to establish the Reformation in her kingdom, though opposed by the kings of France and Spain. She expired suddenly, at Versailles, not without suspicion of poison, in 1578.

ALBERT, duke of Brandenburg, grand master of the Teutonic order, whose territories he secularized, and afterwards embraced the Lutheran creed. By

various encroachments, he laid the foundation of the Prussian monarchy.

ALBIGENSES, a name given to the people who inhabited the countries of Savoy and Piedmont, who, during the middle ages maintained the religious doctrines now held by the protestants, and who, in consequence, were the objects of the cruel persecutions of the kings of France, and of some crusades of various catholic Zealots.

ALBINUS, was born at Adrumetum in Africa, and made governor of Britain, by Commodus. After the murder of Pertinax, he was elected emperor by the soldiers in Britain, as was also Severus by his own army. The two rivals met in Gaul, and Severus being conqueror, ordered the head of Albinus to be cut off, and his body to be thrown into the Rhone, A. D. 196.

ALBUERA, in Portugal, celebrated for the victory of the English marshal, Beresford, over the French under Soult, 1811. This may be called the commencement of those successes which crowned the war in Spain.

ALBUQUERQUE. The name of two Portuguese brothers, who, in 1505, took Cochín, in India. Francis was lost on his passage home. Alphonso captured Ormuz, which, being obliged to relinquish, he returned to India, made a rash and unsuccessful attempt on Calicut, and took Goa and Malacca. He died at Goa 1515, aged 63.

ALCAZAR, in Morocco, the place where Sebastian of Portugal lost a battle, a whole army, and his own life, in a so-called sacred war.

ALCIBIADES, an Athenian general, famous for his enterprising spirit, versatile genius, and natural foibles. He was disciple to Socrates, whose lessons and example checked, for a while, his vicious propensities. In the Peloponnesian war he encouraged the Athenians to make an expedition against Syracuse. He was chosen general in that war, and, in his absence, his enemies accused him of impiety and confiscated his goods.

HISTORY.

Upon this he fled, and stirred up the Spartans to make war against Athens, and when this did not succeed, he retired to Tissaphernes, the Persian general. Being recalled by the Athenians, he obliged the Lacedæmonians to sue for peace, made several conquests in Asia, and was received in triumph at Athens. His popularity was of short duration; the failure of an expedition against Cyme, exposed him again to the resentment of the people, and he fled to Pharnabazus, whom he almost induced to make war upon Lacedæmon. This was told to Lysander, the Spartan general, who prevailed upon Pharnabazus to murder Alcibiades. Two servants were sent for that purpose, and they set on fire the cottage where he was, and killed him with darts as he attempted to make his escape. He died in the forty-sixth year of his age, 404 B.C. after a life of perpetual difficulties. If the fickleness of his countrymen had known how to retain among them the talents of a man who distinguished himself, and was admired wherever he went, they might have risen to greater splendor, and to the sovereignty of Greece. His character has been cleared from the aspersions of malevolence, by the writings of Thucydides, Timæus, and Theopompus; and he is known to us as a hero, who, to the principles of the debauchee, added the intelligence and sagacity of the statesman, the cool intrepidity of the general, and the humanity of the philosopher.

ALEXANDER the Great, son of Philip and Olympias, was born B. C. 356, the night on which the famous temple of Diana at Ephesus was burnt by Erostratus. He was pupil of Aristotle during five years, and he received his learned preceptor's instructions with becoming deference and pleasure, and ever respected his abilities. When Philip went to war, Alexander, in his fifteenth year, was left governor of Macedonia, where he quelled a dangerous sedition, and soon after followed his father to the field, and saved his life in a battle. He was highly offended

when Philip divorced Olympias to marry Cleopatra, and he even caused the death of Attalus, the new queen's brother. After this he retired from court to his mother Olympias, but was recalled; and, when Philip was assassinated, he punished his murderers; and, by his prudence and moderation, gained the affections of his subjects. He conquered Thrace and Illyricum, and destroyed Thebes; and after he had been chosen chief commander of all the forces of Greece, he declared war against the Persians, who, under Darius and Xerxes, had laid waste and plundered the noblest of the Grecian cities. With 32,000 foot and 5000 horse, he invaded Asia, and, after the defeat of Darius at the Granicus, he conquered all the provinces of Asia Minor. He obtained two other celebrated victories over Darius at Issus and Arbela, took Tyre, after an obstinate siege of seven months, and the slaughter of 2000 of the inhabitants in cold blood, and made himself master of Egypt, Media, Syria, and Persia. From Egypt he visited the temple of Jupiter Ammon, and bribed the priests, who saluted him as the son of their god, and enjoined his army to pay him divine honors. He built a town which he called Alexandria, on the western side of the Nile, near the coast of the Mediterranean, an eligible situation, which his penetrating eye marked as best entitled to become the future capital of his immense dominions, and to extend the commerce of his subjects from the Mediterranean to the Ganges. His conquests were spread over India, where he fought with Porus, a powerful king of the country; and after he had invaded Scythia, and visited the Indian ocean, he retired to Babylon, loaded with the spoils of the east. He died at Babylon the 21st of April, in the thirty-second year of his age, after a reign of twelve years and eight months of brilliant and continued success, 323 B. C. His death was so premature that some have attributed it to the effects of poison, and excess of drinking. Antipater has been accused of causing the

fatal poison to be given him at a feast; and perhaps the resentment of the Macedonians, whose services he seemed to forget, by entrusting the guard of his person to the Persians, was the cause of his death. His tender treatment of the wife and mother of king Darius, who were taken prisoners, has been greatly praised; and the latter, who had survived the death of her son, killed herself when she heard that Alexander was dead. His great intrepidity more than once endangered his life; he was always forward in every engagement, and bore the labours of the field as well as the meanest of his soldiers. During his conquests in Asia, he founded many cities, which he called Alexandria, after his own name. Notwithstanding many extravagancies, and even outrages of which he was guilty, he was fond of candour and of truth; and when one of his officers read to him, as he sailed on the Hydaspes, an history which he had composed of his wars with Porus, and in which he had too liberally panegyricized him, Alexander snatched the book from his hand, and threw it into the river, saying, "what need is there of such flattery? are not the exploits of Alexander sufficiently meritorious, without the colourings of falsehood?" He in like manner rejected the offer of a statuary, to cut mount Athos like him, and represent him as holding a town in one hand, and pouring a river from the other. When on his death-bed, being asked whom he appointed to succeed him on the throne; he answered, the worthiest. Alexander, with all his pride, was humane and liberal, easy and familiar with his friends, and a great patron of learning. After his death, his ambitious generals usurped and divided his vast empire. Antipater obtained Greece and Macedonia; Lysimachus, Thrace; Antigonus, and his son Demetrius, Asia Minor; Eumenes, Cappadocia; Ptolemy Lagus, Egypt; and Seleucus, Babylonia. A general war afterwards arose among their chiefs, the results of

which are given under their several heads.

ALEXANDER SEVERUS, a Roman emperor, was a Phœnician. Though his mother was related to the emperor Heliogabalus, his virtue excited the hatred of that monster, who attempted his life; on which the Prætorian guards put the emperor to death, and raised Alexander to the throne. He gained a great victory over the Persians, and on his return to Rome was honoured with a triumph. He next marched against the Germans, who had made an incursion into Gaul; but, while there, fell by a mutiny among his troops. He was pious, temperate, frugal, humane, and a great encourager of literature; and is said to have been so friendly to the Christians, as to have had the image of Jesus Christ in his private chapel.

ALEXANDER, son of Amyntas, was the tenth king of Macedonia. He killed the Persian ambassadors for their immodest behaviour to the women of his father's court, and was the first who raised the reputation of the Macedonians.

ALEXANDER (Nevskoi), grand duke of Russia, and a saint of that church, was born in 1216. Having become, under his father Yaroslav, viceroy of Novogorod, he married a princess of Polotzk, and successfully opposed a combination of Valdemar II. King of Denmark, and the Teutonic knights. In this contest he gained the celebrated victory of Neva.

ALEXANDER, the name of seven popes, the sixth of whom was remarkable for his cruelty, and had an infamous son named Cæsar Borgia; and the seventh, who died in 1667, considerably extended the papal dominions.

ALEXANDRIA, a grand and extensive city, built B. C. 332, by Alexander, on the western side of the Delta. From the commercial advantages which its situation commanded, it continued to improve from the time of Alexander till the invasion of the Saracens in the seventh century. The commodities of India were brought there, and thence dispersed to the

HISTORY.

different countries around the Mediterranean. Alexandria is famous for its large library, which the Ptolemies had collected there, from all parts of the earth, and which was burnt by the orders of the caliph Omar, A. D. 642. Alexandria has likewise been distinguished for its schools of theology, philosophy, and physic. It is celebrated in modern times for the victory obtained over the French, in 1804, by the English under Abercrombie; in which that gallant general was killed.

ALEMANNI, the ancient inhabitants of Swabia and Switzerland, after whom Germany derives its name of Allemague. They were troublesome neighbours of the Romans.

ALEXIUS or **ALEXEI** (Petrovitch,) son of Peter the Great, was born in 1690. On his taking part with the people against the measures of reformation carrying on by his father, he was (1716,) compelled to sign away his right to the succession. Under the protection of Charles III. he escaped to Naples, but being betrayed by his mistress, and by the promises of the Emperor, he returned to Moscow, where he was seized, tried, and condemned. His sudden death, which took place soon afterwards, was imputed by the court to an apoplectic fit, and the proceedings were printed; but he is generally believed to have been assassinated.

ALEXIUS I. (Comnenus) Greek emperor, flourished from 1081 to 1118, was defeated at Dyrrachium, by Robert Guiscard, and in Asia Minor by the Turks. In conjunction with the Crusaders, he recovered Nicæa in 1097, but afterwards quarrelled with them.

ALEXIUS II. (Comnenus) through the misconduct of his mother the Empress Mary, was (1183) compelled to admit Andronicus Comnenus, who had taken Constantinople, as his associate in the empire, and the year following was strangled by his order.

ALEXIUS III. (Angelus,) emperor of the East, having deposed his brother Isaac and put out his eyes, was besieged in Constanti-

nople by the French and Venetians, who re-instated his brother. Alexius fled to Thrace, but fell into the hands of Theodore Lascaris, who put out his eyes, and confined him in a monastery, where he died.

ALFRED, or **ÆLFRED**, **THE GREAT**, the youngest son of Ethelwolf, king of the West Saxons, was born at Wantage, in Berkshire, in 849. At the age of five years he was sent to Rome, and the pope anointed him with the royal unction, though as yet but a younger son. However, on the death of his brother Ethelred in 871, (whom he had served as minister and general) he became heir to the throne, which he refused to accept till it should be ascertained whether his brother's widow were with child. Alfred thus found himself, at the age of twenty-two, in possession of a distracted kingdom. After several actions with the Danes, his followers were so dispirited, that he found himself unable to make head against the invaders, wherefore laying aside the ensigns of royalty, he concealed himself in the cottage of one of his herdsmen. He afterwards retired to the isle of Athelney, in Somersetshire, with a few followers, and there, hearing of a victory obtained over the Danes, is said to have disguised himself as a harper, and entered the Danish camp, to gain a knowledge of the state of the enemy. His skill was so much admired that he remained a considerable time, and was admitted to play before the chiefs. Then directing his nobles to collect their vassals, and to meet him at Selwood, he surprised the Danes at Eddington, and completely defeated them. Alfred behaved with great liberality on this occasion, giving up the kingdom of the East Angles to those of the Danes who embraced the Christian religion. He now put his kingdom into a state of defence, and increased his navy; and having recovered London from the Danes, soon brought it into a flourishing state. After some years, an immense number of Danish forces landing in Kent, those in Nor-

thunderland broke their treaty, and fitting out two fleets, committed great ravages on the coast. Being, however, soon defeated by Alfred, he caused several of the pirates to be executed at Winchester as an example, and thus secured the peace of his dominions, while he struck terror into his enemies. He had fought fifty-six battles by land and sea, in all of which he was personally engaged. But what makes him most an object of admiration, is his character as a reformer of laws and manners, and a promoter of learning. He composed a body of statutes, instituted the trial by jury, and divided the kingdom into shires and tithings. He was so exact in his government that it is said, in his time robbery was unheard of, and valuable goods might be left on the high-road without danger of being stolen. He also formed a parliament, which met in London twice a-year. For the promotion of learning, he invited learned men from all parts, and endowed schools throughout his kingdom. If he was not the founder of the university of Oxford, he at least raised it to a reputation which it never enjoyed before; and among other acts of munificence founded University-College. He was himself a learned prince, and composed several works, and translated others from the Latin, particularly Boetius's Consolations of Philosophy. He divided the twenty-four hours into three equal parts, one devoted to the service of God, another to public affairs, and the third to refreshment. To Alfred, also, England is indebted for the foundation of her naval establishment. In private life he was benevolent, pious, cheerful, and affable; and his person was amiable, dignified, and engaging. He died in 901, aged fifty-three.

ALGIERS, the name of a strong Mohammedan sea-port and district on the northern coast of Africa, under the government of a bey, nominally tributary to the Grand Seigneur, and which for several centuries has carried on a piratical

warfare against the feeblar Christian states, and sometimes against the more powerful ones. It has been several times attacked by the Christian powers, particularly by Charles V. in 1541, and its audacity was checked by Admiral Blake, in 1657. In 1773 it was unsuccessfully attacked by the Spaniards, but in 1816 was bombarded by an English fleet, under Lord Exmouth, compelled to deliver up its Christian captives, and seek its safety by submissions.

ALI, the cousin and son-in-law of Mohammed, whom he ought to have succeeded, but being successfully opposed by Omar and Othman, he raised a sect of his own, and gained many followers. On the death of Othman he was declared caliph in 665, but in 680 he was assassinated in a mosque.

ALI BEY, an adventurer, was born in Natolia in 1728, and being taken by robbers, was bought by Ibrahim, lieutenant of the janisaries at Cairo, and entered among the mamelukes. For his gallantry against the Arabs he was created a bey. In 1763 he attained the dignity of scheik-ecbalad, which is the first in the republic, and soon after slew Ibrahim, to revenge the murder of his master. This obliged him to fly to Acre; but in 1766 he was recalled by the people, and after taking vengeance of his enemies, he declared war against the Arabs, in which he was successful. In 1768 the Porte suspecting his fidelity, sent to take off his head; but Ali seized the messengers, and put them to death. The Egyptians then declared war against the Porte, and obtained several conquests. At last his principal commanders revolting, Ali was taken prisoner, and died of his wounds, in 1773.

ALI PACHA, the son of an Albanian soldier, who, becoming governor of some provinces in Greece for the Porte, maintained himself in almost independent sovereignty, and became a formidable military potentate, between 1790 and 1821, when his capital, Janina, being taken by the Turks, he was beheaded.

HISTORY.

ALLOTHOGES, a tribe of the Galla, who were subdued by Julius Caesar.

ALMANZA, a place in Spain, where the allied British and Austro-Spanish were defeated by the Gallo-Spanish armies, which decided the succession war in favour of the Bourbon family.

ALMANZOR (the Victorious,) the second caliph of the race of the Abbassides, ascended the throne in 753; was opposed by his uncle, Abdallah-ebn-Abi, and from jealousy of his abilities he assassinated the general, Abu Moslem, who defeated him. He died on pilgrimage in the sixty-third year of his age.

ALMAZEE, a town of Spain, carried by assault in the late war by the British, under General Sir Rowland Hill, 1812.

ALMEIDA, a town of Portugal, noted for the defeat of the French under Massena, by the British under Lord Wellington, 1811.

ALOADDIN, the Old Man of the Mountains, was prince of the Arsacides; his residence was a castle between Antioch and Damascus, and his followers were absolutely devoted to his will.

ALP ARSLAN, second sultan of the dynasty of Seljuk, succeeded in 1063; he defeated Romanus Diogenes, emperor of the Greeks, in 1071; was stabbed by a desperate Carizmanian, whom he had taken prisoner and sentenced to death, in 1072.

ALPHONSO, the name of ten kings of Castile, the tenth of whom was a famous astronomer, and assisted in composing the celebrated Alphontine Tables.

ALPHONSO III. (the Great), king of the Asturias, was born in 847, and ascended the throne in 866. He was successful in his wars with the Moors, but in the decline of life his peace was disturbed by insurrections. In 908 he resigned his crown to his son Garcia, who engaging soon after in a war with the Moors, Alphonso headed the army, and obtained a great victory in 918; he died soon after at Zamora, leaving a high character behind him.

ALPHONSO, the name of six

kings of Portugal, the last of whom was deposed in 1667. Under Alphonso V. the African slave-trade commenced in 1442, and the Cape Verd Islands and Guinea were discovered in 1480.

ALPS, mountains that separate Italy from Spain, Gaul, Rhætia, and Germany; considered the highest ground in Europe. Though long considered, from its nature, as impassable, that object has been accomplished with large armies. The most distinguished instances have been those of Annibal and Bonaparte.

The following is a brief account of the passing of the great St. Bernard, by Bonaparte, first consul of the French republic, in the year 1800:—

Before the allies even knew of his departure he was in the Valais, at the house of convalescence belonging to the monks of St. Bernard: there he continued three days, and made himself acquainted with all the local obstacles that he had to surmount.

From mount St. Bernard the army began to meet with difficulties, which might have been thought insurmountable, but enthusiasm conquered them all. They had to draw their artillery along narrow paths, in many places almost perpendicular; and over mountains of snow. A very small force would have arrested their progress, but they met no opposition.

They reached St. Peter near the great mountain St. Bernard, on the 15th of May, General Berthier acting as Bonaparte's lieutenant. The whole park of artillery was collected there. The mountain they had to pass over was 1800 feet above the level of the sea, all wild and barren, with a vast extent of snow and ice, mingled with terrific silence. Over this frightful mountain the mind of Bonaparte conceived the possibility of passing his army with all its artillery, baggage, &c. Obstacles almost invincible presented themselves, but all was foreseen by the genius who conceived the enterprise, and contrived

every thing to carry it into execution.

The cannon, caissons, forges, &c. were immediately dismounted piece-meal; a number of trees were hollowed like troughs, in which the pieces of cannon might safely slide, and five or six hundred men drew them up these tremendous heights; the wheels were carried on poles; sledges conveyed the axle-trees; and empty caissons and mules were loaded with the ammunition-boxes made of fir.

The consul took no more baggage than was absolutely necessary. It took five hours to climb as high as the monastery of the Bernardines, where every individual was refreshed by a glass of wine; this, though frozen, was to them delicious, and not one would have exchanged it for all the gold of Peru. There were still six leagues to go, and the rapidity of the descent made that distance truly terrible; men and horses constantly falling, and often recovering with the greatest difficulty.

Bonaparte entered the monastery, and stayed about an hour; and on leaving it, exhorted these respectable hermits to continue to deserve well of humanity. His mules and horses were in the train. He entered a path which some infantry pursued; the descent was so steep, that he was forced to slide down above two hundred feet on his *derrière* end, and was nearly swallowed up by coming into contact with a collection of thawed snow; the holes into which the soldiers constantly fell, made this part of the journey worse than the ascending. The march commenced at midnight, and did not finish till about nine o'clock the next evening. For near fourteen leagues the army had scarcely had a meal, or any repose, yet at the end of the journey, exhausted nature so overcame even the most robust amongst them, that they quietly resigned themselves into the arms of Morpheus, without ever thinking of their evening repast.

Before the consul ascended the mountain steep, he addressed

a letter to his brother Lucien, then minister of the interior, which reached Paris on the 23d of May. He there stated, that he was at the foot of the great Alps, in the midst of the Valais; the great St. Bernard offered many obstacles, but they are surmounted; the army is descending by forced marches, and in three days all will be over.

ALTENHEIM, in Germany, famous for a battle gained by the Austrians under Montecuccoli over the army of Marshal Turenne, 1675.

ALTENKIRCHEN, in Germany, famous for a victory obtained by the Austrians over the French in 1796.

ALVA (Ferdinand Alvares, duke of), descended from one of the most ancient families in Spain, and born in 1508, made his first campaign at the age of seventeen, and was present at the battle of Pavia. Being made a general by Charles V., he commanded at the siege of Metz, and performed prodigies of valour; yet the emperor was obliged to raise the siege. Superstition and cruelty were prominent parts of his character. In the campaign against the pope, Alva obliged the pontiff to sue for peace, after which he repaired to Rome, and solicited his forgiveness. Philip II. sent him into the Low Countries in 1567, to reduce them to the Spanish yoke. Here he established a council called *The Bloody Tribunal*, and filled the United Provinces with terror and carnage. After obtaining great advantages over the malecontents, the tide of success turned rapidly in their favour, and Alva quitted the government, where he was afterwards employed. In Portugal, however, he greatly added to his military renown, by driving Don Antonio from the throne. He died in 1582.

ALYSSUS, a fountain in Arcadia, the water of which was said to cure the bite of a mad dog.

ALYXOTHOE, the wife of Priam in his old age, and daughter of Depras.

AMADEUS VI., count of Savoy, was one of the most warlike princes of his age. He assisted John, king of France, against Edward, king of England, and in

HISTORY.

1366 passed into Greece to the assistance of the emperor John Paleologus. He died of the plague in 1383, after a glorious reign of forty years.

AMALARIC of **AMAURY**, king of the Visigoths, was son of Alaric II. He succeeded in 526. He was opposed by Childebert in 561, on account of great barbarities used to his wife, Childebert's sister; defeated in 561, and soon afterwards privately slain.

AMAZONIUM. Here Theseus beat the Amazons.

AMAZONS, a nation of famous women, said to have lived near the river Thermodon in Cappadocia. All their life was employed in wars and manly exercises. They never had any commerce with the other sex; but, only, for the sake of propagation, they visited the inhabitants of the neighbouring country for a few days, and the male children which they brought forth were either given to the fathers or strangled. The females were carefully educated with their mothers, in the labours of the field; their right breasts was cut off that they might hurl a javelin with more force, and make better use of the bow; from that circumstance, therefore, their name is derived (*a non, μαζα mamma*).—They founded an extensive empire in Asia Minor, along the shores of the Euxine, and near the Thermodon. They were defeated in a battle near the Thermodon, by the Greeks; and some of them migrated beyond the Tanais, and extended their territories as far as the Caspian sea. Themiscyra was the most capital of their towns; and Smyrna, Magnesia, Thyatira, and Ephesus, according to some authors, were built with the usual designs. Notwithstanding, however, these circumstantial testimonies of authors, the existence of this people is denied by Strabo, and the contradiction is certainly feasible by all the principles of nature and society.

AMBOISE (Georges'), born of a noble French family, in 1460, became successively bishop of Montauban, archbishop of Narbonne, and of

Rouen, prime minister, pope's legate, and cardinal to Louis XII. He advised the conquest of the Milanese, and effected a considerable reform among the religious orders. He was certainly one of the best statesmen France ever had. He died in 1510.

AMBERG, in Germany, where the French, under Marshal Jourdan, suffered a defeat by the Austrians under the Archduke Charles, 1796.

AMBOYNA, one of the spice islands; there was a horrible massacre in 1624; the merchants composing the English factory, were barbarously tortured and put to death by the Dutch.

AMERICA. This extensive continent, both north and south, takes its name from Americus Vesputius, who claimed to have first discovered Mexico, in 1498, attributing to Columbus the knowledge of the West India islands only. Terra Firma, which reaches from Darien to Nicaragua, was conquered by the Spaniards under Pedrarias in 1514, and the other parts, as far as the river Oronoque, were reduced by private adventurers. Brazil was discovered by the Portuguese in 1500. In 1623, the Dutch took possession of the northern part, but were expelled in 1664. Peru was conquered by Francis Pizarro in 1532, in the reign of Huascar, the thirteenth inca from Manco Capac, the founder of the government, about 1270. Chili was conquered by Baldivia, a Spanish general, in 1540. Mexico was conquered by Cortez in 1521. Louisiana was discovered by the French in 1683, but who did not take possession of it till 1718. In 1763 they yielded to the English that part which lies to the east of the Mississippi, which was ceded to the Spaniards at the peace of 1763, who resigned it to the French in 1801, by whom it was sold to the United States in 1803. Florida remained in the possession of the Spaniards from 1521 to 1763, when it was ceded to the English, by whom it was relinquished in 1783, and given by treaty to the United States in 1810; but the treaty was

not ratified. North America was discovered by Sebastian Cabot in 1497. The first part of it colonized by the English was Virginia, in 1607, when James-town was built. New England was first settled in 1614. In 1620 the puritans fled thither from England, and built New Plymouth, Boston, and other places. Part of New York was settled by the Dutch in 1608. The Swedes arrived shortly after, and fixed themselves in other parts; but they were both dispossessed in 1664 by the English. Pennsylvania was first settled by William Penn in 1681; Maryland by Lord Baltimore in 1633; Carolina in 1670; and Georgia, by General Oglethorpe, in 1732. All these colonies, from New England in the north, to Georgia in the south, revolted from Great Britain in 1775, and the next year asserted their independence, which was allowed in 1783. Nova Scotia was settled by Sir William Alexander in 1602, but ten years afterwards it was sold to the French. It was taken again in 1654, and ceded back in 1662; recovered by Sir William Phipps in 1690, and given again to the French in 1697; but the English conquered it once more in 1710, and it was confirmed to them at the peace of Utrecht in 1714. Canada was taken possession of by the French in 1525. Quebec was built in 1608; but the whole country was conquered by the English in 1759, and has been in their hands ever since. America has numerous rivers, and some of immense extent. It has also fresh-water lakes, which, from their size, might justly be called seas. The great cataract of Niagara is on the river of the same name, which connects lakes Erie and Ontario. The mountains in Mexico are of amazing height, Orcazilas being visible from the sea at 160 miles from the coast.

AMERIOLA, a town of Italy, now lost.

AMESTRIS, a queen of Persia, wife of Xerxes.

AMHERST, General Lord, a successful British general in the reigns of George II. and III., who assisted in the conquest of the French North American provinces.

AMHERST (Jeffery, Lord, British general), was born in 1717. He entered the army in 1731, and rose through the several gradations to the rank of field-marshal. He was engaged in the battles of Dettingen, Fontenoy, and Rocoux, and commanded at the siege of Louisbourg. He held successively the offices of governor of Virginia, governor of Guernsey, and commander-in-chief. He died in 1796.

AMIENS, treaty of, concluded between France and England, in 1801.

AMPHIPOLIS, a city of the Athenians, so called because the Strymon flowed all around it. It was the cause of many wars between the Athenians and Spartans.

AMPHITRYON, a fabulous prince, of Thebes, son of Alceus, and the alleged grandfather of Hercules.

AMRU, a Mohammedan general under Omar, who, in 640, took Alexandria, after which the great library was burnt, on the pretence that if it contained what was different from the Coran, it ought not to be preserved, and that if it contained only the same it was useless.

AMURATH II. succeeded his father Mohammed I. in 1448. After establishing his title against numerous pretenders, he resigned his crown to his son Mahomet, and went into philosophic retirement, 1443. But from thence he was perpetually recalled to oppose the enemies of his son, the Hungarians and Janissaries, whom in every instance he defeated. In one of these he was opposed to the celebrated Scanderbeg. Finding his son inadequate to the imperial station, he sent him to govern Asia Minor, and resumed the throne. He died in 1481, aged 47.

ANABAPTISTS, a religious sect, who claim historical notice, in consequence of an insurrection against the temporal powers in Munster and other provinces of Germany, during which they proclaimed the reign of Christ upon earth, and adopted a tailor for their leader, known by the name of John of Leyden, who defended himself at Munster with the most desperate fanaticism for a whole year, after which the leaders were

HISTORY.

punished, and the insurrection quelled.

ANOUS MARTIUS, the 4th king of Rome, was grandson to Numa, by his daughter. He waged a successful war against the Latins, Veientes, Fidenates, Volsci, and Sabines, joined mount Janiculum to the city by a bridge, and inclosed mount Martius and the Aventine within the walls of the city. He extended the confines of the Roman territories to the sea, where he built the town of Ostia, at the mouth of the Tiber. He inherited the valor of Romulus with the moderation of Numa. He died B. C. 616, after a reign of twenty-four years.

ANDRE (John), quitted the counting-house for the camp, and highly distinguished himself in the American war. Being deputed to treat secretly with a general of the enemy on the surrender of an important post, he was seized, and, by order of Washington, shot as a spy. His death was highly resented by the English, and a monument is erected to him in St. Paul's.

ANDROOLEA, a daughter of Antipenus of Thebes. When the oracle had promised the victory to her countrymen, who were engaged in a war against Orchomenos, if any one of noble birth devoted himself for the glory of his nation, Antipenus refusing, his daughters, Androclea and Alcida, cheerfully slew themselves.

ANDROMACHE, a wife of Hector, prince of Troy, of whom she was so fond that she even fed his horses with her own hand. In the division of the prisoners by the Greeks, Andromache fell to the share of Neoptolemus, who treated her as his wife, and carried her to Epirus. He had by her three sons, but afterwards repudiated her. She then married Helenus, son of Priam, with whom she reigned over part of the country.

ANDROMEDA, a daughter of Cepheus, king of Ethiopia, by Cassiope. The well-known fable of her exposure by Neptune to a sea-monster, and her liberation by Perseus, has been explained, by supposing that she was courted by the captain of a ship, who attempt-

ed to carry her away, but was prevented by the interposition of another more faithful lover.

ANDRONICUS I. Comenus, a Greek emperor, the son of Isaac, was imprisoned twelve years for treason. On the accession of Alexis II. he was chosen a partner in the government, and, in return, put his innocent coadjutor to death. He was at length given up to the insults of the populace, and died in 1185, aged 73.

ANDRONICUS, the name of two Greek emperors, who reigned at the beginning of the 14th century.

ANDRONICUS, the first comedian.

ANGLES, a tribe who occupied the country between the Wazer and the Elbe, who, in the fourth century, are known for their piracies on the coasts of Britain and Gaul, and who in 440 established themselves in Britain, and gave their name to the country.

ANGILBERT (St.), son-in-law, secretary, ambassador, and military governor to Charlemagne. Died an abbot, 814.

ANGORA, in Asia, where Bajazet, sultan of the Ottomans, was defeated and taken prisoner by Tamerlane, in 1402.

ANHOLT, the island of, captured by the British in 1811.

ANNA, a goddess, in whose honour the Romans instituted festivals. Many fabulous opinions have been entertained as to the origin of this festival; but the most reasonable is, that Anna was an industrious old woman of Bo villus, and was deified for her good nature in supplying the Romans at Mount Sacer every day with cakes.

ANN, empress of Russia, a niece of Peter the Great, whose grandson Peter II. she succeeded in 1730. She carried on several wars against the Persians, Poles, and Turks, and died in 1740.

ANNE of Austria, queen of France, was daughter of Philip III. king of Spain. She lived on bad terms with her husband, Louis XIII. through cardinal Richelieu. On the death of Louis, she became sole regent during the minority of Louis XIV. By placing confidence in cardinal Mazarine, she was obliged to fly from

Paris will matters were accommodated. When the king assumed the government in 1661, she retired and died in 1666.

ANSELM, a celebrated archbishop of Canterbury, in the early part of the twelfth century, who vigorously maintained the powers of the church against the regal authority.

ANSON (George, Lord) a British admiral, distinguished for his victories over the Spaniards, and the devastation he committed on their Indian fleets and settlements. He also determinedly withstood a demand of toll made by the Chinese, though having only one ship left from the tempest to back his resolution. Nor were the French without evidence of his bravery and skill, being defeated by him in the channel (1747), with the loss of six men of war. He closed a life of naval glory, repaid by public honours, in 1760.

ANTIGONE, a daughter of Oedipus, king of Thebes, by his mother Jocasta. She led about Oedipus, when he was banished for burying by night her brother Polyneices, against the positive orders of Creon; he ordered her to be buried alive. She however killed herself before the sentence could be executed.

ANTIGONUS, (Gonatus), son of Demetrius Poliorcetes, a peaceable prince; but was compelled to enter into war, first with the Gauls, and afterwards with Pyrrhus of Epirus. The head of the latter being brought him by his son, he expressed great resentment, and interred the body with funeral honours. He died B. C. 263, aged 80.

ANTIGONUS, brother of Alexander, who, on his death, set up for king of Asia, but was defeated at Ipsus, 301 B. C.

ANTINOUS, a youth of Bithynia, between whom and the emperor Adrian there was an extravagant fondness. Antinous is said to have offered himself at a sacrifice as a victim, in honour of the emperor, who, on his death, erected a temple to him at Mantinea.

ANTIOCH, a city of Syria, once the third city of the world for beauty, greatness, and population.

It was built by Antiochus and Seleucus Nicator, partly on a hill, and partly in a plain. It is also celebrated for a defeat of the Turks in 1693, by Godfrey and the crusaders. It formed, for some time after, a petty state with Odessa and Jerusalem.

ANTIOCHUS, the name of several celebrated kings of Syria, between the years 282 and 64, B. C. The chief of them was called the Great, and he conquered Media, Persia, and Parthia, favoured Hannibal, and made war on Rome, but sustained a total defeat at Magnesia, 190 B. C. The next of the name was also called Epiphanes, and was the same whose persecutions are recorded in the book of Maccabees. They built the city of Antioch, famous in after-ages for its splendour and population.

ANTIOCHUS III. (the Great) was the son of Seleucus Callinicus; and succeeded to the crown, B. C. 218. A defeat by Ptolemy Philopater, B. C. 217, lost him Palestine and Coelosyria. It was after this, in his march to India, that his success procured him the title of Great. Antiochus afterwards recovered Palestine and Coelosyria, and reduced a great part of Upper Asia. This alarmed the free cities of Greece, who applied to the Romans for aid, while Antiochus was courted by Hannibal. The Romans, under the two Scipios, were victorious, and Antiochus was forced to make an ignoble peace. He died B. C. 187.

ANTIOCHUS IV. (Epiphanes or Famous, younger son of the above, succeeded B. C. 176. For thirteen years after the defeat of his father at Magnesia, he was a hostage at Rome. He afterwards reduced Egypt, except Alexandria, and took Ptolemy Philometer, on which the people of Alexandria placed Ptolemy Euergetes on the throne. Antiochus restored his prisoner to so much of his dominions as he had conquered; and the two brothers afterwards reigned in conjunction. He also invaded and destroyed Jerusalem, where his cruelty occasioned a revolt, and the Jews recovered their independence. He died B. C. 164, aged thirty-nine.

HISTORY.

ANTIOCHUS (Sidetes, or the Hunter), was the son of Demetrius Soter. He slew Tryphon, usurper of Syria, and was crowned B. C. 128. He was at last defeated and killed in a battle with the Parthians under Phraates, B. C. 130.

ANTIOCHUS (Grypus), son of the above by Cleopatra, B. C. 123. Discovering his mother's intentions, he obliged her to take the poison she had prepared for him, of which she died. After some bloodshed he shared his kingdom with his half-brother Cyrenicus, and died B. C. 97, being slain by one of his own subjects.

ANTIUM, a maritime city of Italy, the capital of the Volsci. Camillus took it, and carried all the beaks of their ships to Rome, and placed them in the Forum on a tribunal, which from thence was called *Rostrum*. This city was dedicated to the goddess of Fortune, whose statues, when consulted, gave oracles by a nodding of the head, or other different signs.

ANTIPATER, a native of Macedon, pupil of Aristotle, and the faithful minister of Philip and Alexander. While Alexander was abroad, he was left in the government of Macedon; and, on the death of his master, obtained the European provinces. He subdued the confederate states of Greece, subverted their democratic forms of government; and was thence called the father of Greece. He died B. C. 318.

ANTIPATER, a physician and poet of Sidon. On every birthday he had an ague, and at length died of it.

ANTIPATRIS, a city of Palestine.

ANTIPHANES, a famous statuary of Argos.

ANTONINUS PIUS (Titus Aurelius Fulvius Boionus Antoninus), a Roman emperor, was born in 86, of a noble family. In 120 he was raised to the consulate. He was adopted by the emperor Adrian in 138, and succeeded him in the same year. His reign was distinguished by its tranquillity, and by the emperor's uniform good management, which procured him the

title of Pius. He used to say, "that he rather chose to save the life of one citizen; than to destroy a thousand enemies." This emperor was also a friend to toleration, and extended his protection to the Christians. He died in 161.

ANTONINUS (Marcus Aurelius), surnamed the Philosopher, emperor of Rome, was born A. D. 121. On the death of Pius, he entered on the government, and chose for his colleague Lucius Verus, who dying in 160, the government devolved solely on Antoninus. In the prosecution of the German war in 174, he was blocked up by the Quadi in a disadvantageous situation, and the army was on the point of perishing either by the enemy, or by thirst. A copious shower which fell, at this juncture was attributed to the prayers of the twelfth legion, consisting of Christians, and which was thence honoured by the emperor with the title of the "thundering legion." His various acts of justice and beneficence have marked him as one of the best monarchs the world ever saw. His most unfortunate act was the premature introduction of his son Commodus into the government. He died in 180, and his memory was so revered that the Romans enrolled him among their household deities.

ANTONY (Marc), the triumvir, was the grandson of the preceding, and son of M. Antonius Creticus. His first proof of that courage and address, which afterwards distinguished him, was in his restoring Ptolemy to the throne of Egypt. He next served in Gaul with great reputation under Cæsar, through whom he obtained the quaestorship. In return he assisted Cæsar in gaining possession of the sovereign power, and was by him made governor of Italy, and commander of the legions. For his conduct at the battle of Pharsalia, Cæsar appointed him master of the horse, and chose him as his colleague in the consularship, B. C. 44. On the death of Cæsar, Antony behaved with great art; first procuring the confirmation of the acts of his colleague by the senate, and next his

public funeral, when the harangue he made in his favour produced such an effect on the populace, that Brutus and Cassius were obliged to quit the city. He then began to exercise his authority in such a manner, as to convince all parties that he meant to assume the sovereignty. The patriots, to check his career, espoused the cause of Octavius, the heir of Caesar, on which Antony retired to his government of Cisalpine Gaul, and began a civil war by laying siege to Martina (now Modena). The consuls, with Octavius, were sent against him, and though Antony was defeated, both consuls were slain. Antony then crossed the Alps, and joined Lepidus, with whom and Octavius he contrived to form the second triumvirate. After the defeat of Brutus and Cassius, he went into Asia, and outwitted all other princes by the splendour of his court. Here Cleopatra, queen of Egypt, captivated him by her charms, and he accompanied her to Alexandria, where he gave himself up to pleasure. In the mean time Octavius having quarrelled with Fulvia, the wife of Antony, that determined woman took up arms against him. This provoked Octavius into direct hostilities; on which Antony manifested so much displeasure with Fulvia, that she died of grief. A reconciliation being now effected between the chiefs, Antony married Octavia, the sister of his colleague. A new division of the empire was the consequence of this alliance, in which the east was allotted to Antony. He soon after renewed his intercourse with Cleopatra in so shameful a manner, that he was deprived of his consular dignity, and war was declared against the Egyptian queen by the senate. Antony, immersed in dissipation, lost all his military spirit. At the battle of Actium, however, he fought bravely, till Cleopatra set the example of flight, on which Antony followed, and finding himself deserted on all sides, stabbed himself, B. C. 30, aged fifty-six.

APPIUS CLAUDIUS, a decemvir, who attempted the virtue of

Virginia, whom her father killed to preserve her chastity; and by this act of violence was the cause of a revolution in the state. When cited to appear before the tribunal of his country, the ravisher destroyed himself.

AQUILEIA or AQUILEGIA, a town founded by a Roman colony, called from its grandeur *Roma secunda*, and situate at the north of the Adriatic sea, on the confines of Italy. The Romans built it chiefly to oppose the frequent incursions of the barbarians. The Roman emperors enlarged and beautified it, and often made it their residence. It was celebrated for several battles, as that of Constantine junior over Constans, in 340; Theodosius over Maximus, in 388, and over Eugenius in 394.

ARABIA, situated betwixt the Erythrean sea, (or Indian ocean,) the Red Sea, Palestine, and the Persian gulf, was anciently divided into Petrea, Deserta, and Felix. Petrea, bordering on the Red Sea, contains the province of Idumea, Exion, Gaber, Mount Sinai, and Horeb, joined by Trajan to Palestine. Arabia Felix, the southern part, includes Mecca, and the island Socotora, in which Alexander planted a colony of Greeks: and Arabia Deserta was wholly unknown to the ancients. So partial is our early knowledge of this extensive country, which, as a nation, has never been subjugated.

The Saracens, since so famous, were in the times of Pliny and Ptolemy but a single tribe. The modern history of Arabia may be said to begin with Mohammed, who assuming the appellation of the Prophet of God, called to propagate a new faith, and supporting his pretended mission by apurios miracles and by the sword, imposed his doctrine and authority over Arabia Felix, and in sixteen years, dating from his flight, had founded one of the most extended empires that ever existed.

On his death, 632, the imposture so favourable to the possession of civil power was ardently supported by his relations. Ali, the son-in-law, and Abu-Beor, the father-in-law of Mohammed, were cand.

HISTORY.

dates for the succession; the latter prevailed through the intrigues of Ayesha, the impostor's widow, and Ali, determined to be a chief, founded a new sect. Abu-Beor was, however, the virtual sovereign, being obeyed in Medina, Mecca, and the provinces of Arabia. He added to the empire all the countries betwixt Mount Libanus and the Mediterranean, and died A. D. 634. Omar, his successor, in one campaign, conquered Syria, Phenicia, Mesopotamia, and Chaldeas; and in the next the whole of Persia; and under Al Walid, in 703, the empire extended towards Cappadocia and Thrace, and into Spain and Africa; while the greater part of Asia already acknowledged the divine mission of Mohammed. Under Omar II. the Arabs had overrun the provinces of the eastern and western empires, passed through Spain into Gaul, and thus formed a barrier to the Turks, who were now pouring with a full tide from the shores of the Caspian sea, to divide with the Arabs the countries which they had invaded. They were, however, driven out from Armenia, by Al Mansur, who transferred the seat of empire to Bagdad, which he had built. The empire had so greatly enlarged in the reign of Musa, 760, that the following division of the empire was made to his three sons. The eldest, Al Amin, had Syria, Irak, Arabia, Mesopotamia, Assyria, Media, Palestine, Egypt, and Africa from Egypt and Ethiopia to Gibraltar, with the title of Caliph; to Al Mamun was assigned Persia, Kuman, Khorasan, and the adjacent provinces; and to Al Motasem, the youngest, Armenia, Natolia, Georgia, Circassia, and all the Moslem territories towards the Euxine sea. Spain was now governed by the family of Abdubrahman.

Al Motasem, in 833, was the first who introduced Turkish soldiers into his armies. In 861 they were found useful by Al Montasem in killing his father, and in 892 had attained such power in the army as to expel one monarch, and place another on the throne. Him, however, they deposed and murdered,

as also his successor. Both parties however, were united to oppose the Karimians, a Mohammedan sect, who had risen to a great head. In 933, by the division of the empire, and the dissensions in the court and army, Bagdad and its vicinity were all that remained to the caliphs, and Al Radi was the last caliph who held any power in his own hands, every thing being administered by the Emir Al Omra. In 991, part of India was added to the caliphate, but every accession of power only strengthened the hands of the Emir, now styled Caliph of Bagdad, and who had now eclipsed the reigning prince. On his death, however, part of the provinces returned into the rule of the crown.

In 1096, and at intervals till 1291, the integrity of the empire was tried by the zeal of the crusaders, but without any final result; but about the same time the Moguls broke in upon the Mussalman dominions, and prepared the way for the conquests of Jenghis-Khan. Bagdad was at last taken (1258) by the Tartars, and Motasem, the last of the caliphs, was suffocated in a leather sack. Bagdad was pillaged, and furnished immense treasures in the spoil.

Arabia has since been, generally speaking, subject to the Turkish government, but has lately been overrun by a religious sect called the Wahabis, founded by Sheik Mohammed, protected by Ebu Saud; by whom the city of Mecca has been taken, the pilgrimage effectually prevented, and the town of Asia destroyed with fire and sword. Recent intelligence, however, from Turkey, states that their capital, Duyeh, has been taken, their power entirely subverted, and their chief put to death at Constantinople, after suffering the most excruciating torture.

ARBACES, a Mede, who revolted with Belesis against Sardapalus, and founded the empire of Media upon the ruins of the Assyrian power, 820 years before the Christian era. He reigned above fifty-years, and was famous for the greatness of his undertakings, as well as for his valour.

ARCHIDAMUS, son of Theopompus king of Sparta; he died before his father.

Another, king of Sparta, son of Anaxidamus, succeeded by Agesicles.

Another, son of Agesilans, of the family of the Proclids.

Archidamus succeeded his grandfather Leotychidas. He conquered the Argives and Arcadians, and privately assisted the Phocians in plundering the temple of Delphi. He was killed at the battle of Tarentum, after a reign of thirty-three years.

ARCHIMEDES, a celebrated philosopher, famed in history for the mechanical contrivances by which he enabled the Syracusans to repel the Roman assaults during the siege of that city: but it was at length taken by storm, when Archimedes was killed.

ARCOLA, in Italy, where Gen. Bonaparte defeated the Austrians, after a conflict of seven days continuance.

ARCHONS, the name of the chief magistrates of Athens. They were nine in number, and chosen from the first families. The three highest in rank were called Archon, Basileus, and Polemarch, and the other Thesmothetes. The office was of the highest honour, and the most rigid requisitions, and none but such as were perfect in body, as well as eminent for their talents and probity, could be invested with it. The perpetual Archons, after the death of Codrus, were Medon, whose office began B. C. 1070; Acastus, 1060; Archippus, 1014; Thersippus, 996; Phorbas, 934; Megacles, 923; Diognetus, 893; Pherecles, 865; Ariphron, 846; Thespius, 826; Agamemnor, 799; Æschylus, 778; Alcmon, 756; after whose death the archons were decennial, the first of whom was Charops, who began 753; Æsimedes, 744; Clidicus, 734; Hippomenes, 724; Leocrates, 714; Apsander, 704; Eryxias, 694; after whom the office became annual, and of these annual archons Creon was the first.

AREOPAGITES, so called from their place of meeting, were the original judges of Athens. They

took cognizance of murders, impiety, immorality, and particularly of idleness. They had the liberty of rewarding virtue as well as of punishing vice. They sat at night, and their pleadings were restricted from all attempt at oratory. Their authority co-existed with their purity, till both were craftily destroyed by Pericles to favour his own corrupt designs.

ARGO, the name of the fabulous ship which carried Jason and his companions to Colchis for the golden fleece, B. C. 1203. It was said to have been the first that ever sailed on the sea.

ARGONAUTS, a name given to those heroes who accompanied Jason. The story is probably entirely fabulous, having no connexion with any well authenticated facts of history.

ARGUS, the fabled son of Ares, famed for having one hundred eyes; Juno made him keeper of Io. He was slain by Mercury, and turned into a peacock.

ARIARATHES. The name of several kings of Cappadocia, of whom the fifth began his reign B. C. 224, and married the daughter of Antiochus the Great. He died B. C. 182. The sixth (surnamed Philopater), by the help of Attalus, king of Pergamus, recovered his crown from Olofernes, but was slain in battle, B. C. 129. The seventh was murdered by his brother-in-law Mithridates the Great, who usurped the throne, but was in turn dispossessed by the eighth, whom also he assassinated, and placed his own infant son upon the throne by the name of Ariarathes IX.

ARIDÆUS, a bastard son of Philip of Macedon. He was one of the generals of Alexander, and succeeded him.

ARIOBARZANES, a man made king of Cappadocia by the Romans, after the troubles which the false Ariarathes had raised, had subsided. Mithridates drove him from his kingdom, but the Romans restored him. He followed the interest of Pompey, and fought at Pharsalia against Julius Cæsar. He and his kingdom were preserved by means of Cicero.

HISTORY.

ARIOBARZANES, a general of Darius, who defended the passes of Susa with 15,000 foot against Alexander. After a bloody encounter with the Macedonians, he was killed as he attempted to seize the city of Persepolis.

ARION, a musician of Lesbos, whom, when at sea the mariners would have killed; he leaped into the sea, and the fable adds, a dolphin, which had been charmed by his music, carried him safe to land.

ARION, a horse produced by Neptune, from striking the earth with his trident.

ARISTÆUS, a hero in ancient mythology.

ARISTIDES, a celebrated Athenian, who rose to the first offices in the state, and discharged them with so much credit, as to obtain the honourable surname of "the Just." He was a great admirer of the laws of Lycurgus, and very rigid in his notions of public justice. At the battle of Marathon, he distinguished himself by his bravery; but though he had the charge of the spoils, he took nothing for himself. After many fruitless attempts to corrupt his integrity, the party of Themistocles at length prevailed against him, and he was banished by the ostracism. But when the Athenians were apprehensive of a visit from Xerxes, they recalled Aristides, who, nobly forgetting past injuries, gave his assistance to Themistocles for the benefit of the commonwealth; and when that commander was prosecuted, he refused to give his consent to the sentence of his banishment. Aristides was held in the highest esteem by all the confidential states of Greece, and was appointed by them to regulate the proportionate assessments which they were to pay for the support of the war. In this he acted with so much wisdom and justice, as to gain universal admiration. He died very poor, about 467 B. C. The Athenians bestowed a magnificent funeral on him, gave his son Lysimachus an estate and pension, and portioned his daughters at the public expence.

ARIADNE, daughter of Minos,

king of Crete, whom Theseus is said to have loved, seduced, and deserted; she hung herself in consequence.

ARISTODEMUS, a hero of mythology.

ARISTOGITON and Harmodius, two celebrated patriots of Athens, who by their joint efforts delivered their country from the tyranny of the Pisistratidæ, B. C. 510. They received immortal honours from the Athenians, and had statues raised to their memory.

ARISTOMENES, a famous general of Messenia, who encouraged his countrymen to shake off the Lacedæmonian yoke. He refused to assume the title of king, being satisfied with that of commander. He acquired the surname of *Just*, from his equity, to which he joined the true valour, sagacity, and perseverance of a general. He often entered Sparta, without being known, and twice eluded the vigilance of the Lacedæmonians, who had taken him captive. As he attempted to do it a third time, he was killed.

ARMADA (The Spanish.) The destruction of this armament, which took place in the reign of queen Elizabeth, is an important point of English history. It was fitted out by Philip of Spain, the husband of our bigot Mary, and consisted of 130 vessels, with 20,000 troops, and 8,250 seamen. Providence gave the first blow to this mighty enterprise; the fleet was dispersed by tempest, sunk, and dashed against the rocks. Besides this, the largeness of the Spanish ships proved disadvantageous to them on the seas where they engaged; so that the lord admiral Howard, and the brave sea-officers under him, engaged, beat, and chased the fleet for several days; but very few of the Spanish ships recovered their ports. Next to the admiral lord Howard of Effingham, Sir Francis Drake, captain Hawkins, and captain Frobisher, distinguished themselves against this formidable invasion. The Spaniards are said to have lost eighty-one ships of war, large and small, and 13,500 men. The preparations on land, super-

enters is
l, and
a con-
f may-
odius,
then,
vered
my of
They
from
atmos-
is ge-
raged
f the
fused
being
nder-
Just-
ined
per-
stient
reine-
the
ians
As
ine,
The
ent,
i of
ant
was
nd
100
vi-
is
as
id
es
sh
to
n-
al-
rs
id
st
ps
to
36-
p-
or-
es
n-
e
r,
h
r

intended by the queen herself, were fully commensurate to those at sea.

ARMENIA was part of the empire of the Medes, till 224 B. C. when Zadriades and Artaxias, revolting from Antiochus the Great, the country was divided, Armenia Major being taken by Artaxias, and Minor by Zadriades. Zigranes, king of the former, in 95 B. C., reduced Armenia Minor and other provinces, and united the two countries. It became under him tributary to Rome in 66 B. C. and Trajan made it a Roman province in 106. In 370 it was conquered by Sapor king of Parthia, but the Romans soon recovered it. Afterwards it was governed by its own princes, till the Saracens obtained it about 650. It was conquered by the Seljankian Turks about 1046, after which it suffered many changes till it was reduced by the prince of Kharasm in 1201, who was driven out of it by Genghis Khan in 1218. In 1335 the Ilkanian dynasty began here, and continued till 1385, when it was conquered by Timur, from whom it was soon after recovered by the Ilkanian princes. On the death of Ahmed Jalayr, the last of that line, in 1405, Kara Yusef, the chief of the Turcomans, got possession of it. This dynasty had the name of the Black Sheep, and in 1488 it fell by conquest to the family of the White Sheep. In 1500 it was conquered by Ismael Sesi, and reduced by Selim II. in 1552, since which the Turks have held possession of all, except the eastern part, which belongs to the Persians.

ARMINIUS, the Deliverer of Germany, was honoured by Augustus with knighthood, and the citizenship of Rome. But from attachment to his native country, he instigated the Germans to revolt. After a variety of fortune, Arminius was assassinated in the thirty-seventh year of his age, A. D. 21.

ARRAGON, the name of a kingdom of Spain, which commenced about the year 900, whose first king was Remiro, and last Ferdinand, who united Arragon and Castile in 1479, and thereby laid

the foundation of the present Spanish monarchy.

ARRIA, the wife of Cæcina Pætus, the Roman consul, is immortalized for her heroism and conjugal affection. When her husband was sentenced to put himself to death by Claudius, she, perceiving his hesitation, plunged a dagger into her bosom, and drawing it out said, "My Pætus, it is not painful!"

ARSACES I. founder of the Parthian monarchy. He persuaded his countrymen to break off the Macedonian yoke, B. C. 250, on which they raised him to the throne. Arsaces was slain in battle, after reigning thirty-eight years. He was in such estimation that the Parthians called all their kings afterwards by his name.

ARSAMES, a son of Artaxerxes, who perished chiefly through the treachery of his brother Ochus, afterwards Artaxerxes III.

ARTAXERXES I., surnamed Longimanus, ascended the throne B. C. 465. In his time peace was restored between Persia and Athens, after a war of fifty-one years. He is generally supposed to have been the Ahasuerus of scripture. He died B. C. 424.

ARTAXERXES II., surnamed Mnemon, began his reign B. C. 404. Cyrus, his brother, mustering a large army, marched to Babylon, but was met by Artaxerxes, defeated, and slain. After the death of Artaxerxes, Statira married his own daughter! He died B. C. 342.

ARTAXERXES III. (Ochus) to pave his way to the succession, put to death all the branches of his family. Several insurrections were raised against him, which he quelled. In Egypt he slew the sacred bull Apis, and gave the flesh to his soldiers; for which his eunuch, an Egyptian, poisoned him.

ARTABANUS, son of Hystaspes, was brother to Darius the first. He dissuaded his nephew Xerxes from making war against the Greeks, and at his return he assassinated him with the hopes of ascending the throne. Darius, the son of Xerxes, was murdered in a similar manner; and Artaxerxes,

HISTORY.

his brother, would have shared the same fate, had not he discovered the snares of the assassin, and punished him with death.

ARTABANUS II. king of Media, was invited about A. D. 10 by the Parthians to be their king, in opposition to Vonones. He was twice deposed for his arbitrary conduct; he then governed with such discretion that his death, about A. D. 46, was lamented by his subjects.

Another king of Parthia, who made war against the emperor Caracalla, who had attempted his life on pretence of sparing his daughter. He was murdered 206, the power of Parthia abolished, and the crown translated to the Persian monarchs.

ARTEMISIA I. queen of Caria, assisted Xerxes in person against the Greeks. The Spartans erected a statue to her.

ARTEMISIA II. queen of Caria, who erected the mausoleum to her husband. She captured the whole Rhodian fleet, went with it to Rhodes, and took that city, B. C. 301.

ARTHUR, a fabulous prince of ancient Britain, of whom little probable is related. The institution of an order of chivalry, called the knights of the round table, is attributed to him, as also the settlement of Christianity at York. His death is dated at 542.

ARTILLERY, engines of war for throwing missiles, stones, and balls. Among the ancients they were called ballista and catapulta, and acted with mechanical force. After the invention of gunpowder, in the beginning of the fourteenth century, its explosive power was applied, and the first battle in which artillery was so used, is said to have been at Cressy, though it had been previously employed in sieges. The modern invention of light artillery during the wars of the French revolution, has effected a complete change in military tactics.

ASCALON, in Syria, celebrated in scripture history, and for the defeat of the famous Saladin, by the crusaders under Richard Cœur de Lion, 1192.

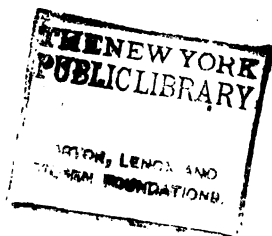
ASDRUBAL, a Carthaginian

commander, was brother-in-law of Hannibal, and succeeded Hamilcar in Spain, where he built a city named New Carthage, now Carthagena, and reduced the whole country into subjection to the Carthaginians. He was assassinated by a Gaul, in revenge for having put his master to death.

ASDRUBAL BARCA, the brother of Hannibal, several times defeated by the Romans in Spain: he afterwards entered Italy to assist his brother, but was attacked by the Romans, his army routed, and himself slain, B. C. 202.

ASDRUBAL, the name of a celebrated Carthaginian general, who, about 220 B. C. gained several victories in Spain, which led to the second Punic war.

ASIA, one of the three parts of the ancient world, separated from Europe by the Tanais, the Euxine, Ægean, and Mediterranean seas. The Nile and Egypt divide it from Africa. This part of the globe has given birth to many of the greatest monarchies of the universe, and to the ancient inhabitants of Asia we are indebted for most of the arts and sciences. The soil is fruitful, and abounds with all the necessaries as well as luxuries of life. Asia was divided into many different empires, provinces, and states, of which the most conspicuous were the Assyrian and Persian monarchies. The Assyrian monarchy, according to Eusebius, lasted 1200 years, and according to Justin 1300 years, down to the year of the world 4280. The empire of Persia existed 220 years, till the death of Darius III, whom Alexander the Great conquered. The empire of the Medes lasted 200 years, according to Eusebius, or less, according to others, till the reign of Astyages, who was conquered by Cyrus the Great, who transferred the power from the Medes, and founded the Persian monarchy. It was in Asia that the military valour of the Macedonians, and the bold retreat of the 10,000 Greeks were so conspicuously displayed: and it is in that part of the world that we are to look for the more visible progress of luxury, despotism, sedition, effeminacy,



and disposition. Asia was generally divided into Major and Minor. Asia Major was the most extensive, and comprehended all the eastern parts; and Asia Minor was a large country in the form of a peninsula, whose boundaries may be known by drawing a line from the bay of Issus, in a northern direction, to the eastern part of the Euxine sea. Asia Minor has been subject to many revolutions. It was tributary to the Scythians for upwards of 1300 years, and was a long time in the power of the Lydians, Medes, &c. The western parts of Asia Minor were the receptacle of all the ancient emigrations from Greece, and it was totally peopled by Grecian colonies. The Romans generally and indiscriminately called Asia Minor by the name of Asia. Such are the notices of Asia, as it affects classic history, but we have also to consider it in relation to sacred and to modern history. In Asia was the garden of Eden, and the resting-place of the ark; and in this quarter almost all the early facts of christianity took place. In the middle ages, the successors of Mohammed founded in Asia, in Africa, and in Europe, a more extensive empire than that of Cyrus, Alexander, or even the Roman when in its height of power. The Saracen greatness ended with the death of Tamerlane; and the Turks, conquerors on every side, took possession of the middle regions of Asia, which they still enjoy. Besides the countries possessed by the Turks and Russians, Asia contains at present three powerful empires, the Chinese, the Mogul, and the Persian, upon which the lesser kingdoms and sovereignties of Asia generally depend. The prevailing form of government in this division of the globe is absolute monarchy. If any of them can be said to enjoy some share of liberty, it is the wandering tribes, as the Tartars and Arabs. Many of the Asiatic nations, when the Dutch first came among them, could not conceive how it was possible for any people to live under any other form of government than that of a despotic monarchy. Turkey,

Arabia, Persia, part of Tartary, and part of India, profess Mohammedanism. The Persian and Indian Mohammedans are of the sect of Hali, and the others of that of Omar; but both own Mohammed for their law-giver, and the Coran for their rule of faith and life. In the other parts of Tartary, India, China, Japan, and the Asiatic islands, they are generally heathens and idolaters. Jews are to be found every where in Asia. Christianity, though planted here with wonderful rapidity by the apostles and primitive fathers, suffered an almost total eclipse by the conquests of the Saracens, and afterwards of the Turks. Incredible, indeed, have been the hazards, perils, and sufferings of popish missionaries, to propagate their doctrines in the most distant regions, and among the grossest idolaters; but their labours have hitherto failed of success, owing in a great measure to the avarice and profligacy of the Europeans, who resort thither in search of wealth and dominion.

The principal languages spoken in Asia are, the modern Greek, the Turkish, the Russian, the Tartarian, the Persian, the Arabic, the Malayan, the Chinese, and the Japanese. The European languages are also spoken upon the coasts of India and China.

It is about 4740 miles in length, from the Dardanelles on the west, to the eastern shore of Tartary; and about 4380 miles in breadth, from the most southern part of Malacca, to the most northern cape of Nova Zembla. The principal regions which divide this country are as follow: Tartary, containing the Russian, Chinese, Mogulean, and Independent nations. Turkey in Asia, containing China, Mogul, India, Persia, part of Arabia, Syria, Holy Land, Nubia, Diarbeck or Mesopotamia, Turcomania, and Georgia.

The islands lie in the Pacific or Eastern Ocean, and the Indian seas, of which the principal are,—The Japanese isles, the Ladrões, Formosa, the Philippines, the Molucca or Clove isles, the Banda, or Nutmeg isles; the Amboyna,

HISTORY.

the Celebes, and the Gilolo, &c. surrounding the Molacca and Banda isles; the Sunda isles, or Borneo, Sumatra, Java, &c.; the Andaman and Nicobar isles, Ceylon, the Maldives, Bombay, the Kurile isles, and those in the sea of Kamtschatka, lately discovered by the Russians.

ASPERNE, in Austrian Italy, the scene of a severe engagement between the French and Austrians, which continued two days, and was put an end to by the sudden rising of the river, and the necessity of the French to retreat.

ASSASSINS, the followers of an Arab chief in the time of the Crusades, who were so devoted to him, that they readily sacrificed their lives to effect the death of any of his enemies. Hence the name has been applied to all secret murderers.

ASSIENTO, treaty of, in 1713, by which a company of English merchants undertook to supply the Spanish colonies with negroes.

ASSYE, battle of, between the English, under Sir Arthur Wellesley, and the forces of Scindia, and the rajah of Berar, Sept. 23, 1803. The native power being defeated with immense loss, they were in consequence forced to submit to a peace dictated by the governor-general of Bengal.

ASSYRIA, now Curdistan: this ancient and extensive empire cannot well be dated before the establishment of monarchy at Nineveh, in the person of Pul, B. C. 790. The empire was overthrown, and Nineveh taken by Cyaxares, king of Media, and Nebuchodonosor, king of Babylon, 609 B. C. This country afterwards shared the fate of the Babylonian and Persian empires, the greater part being added to the Parthian empire. In 1514 it fell into the hands of Ismael Kofi, and was finally conquered by the Turks in 1637.

ASTORGA, in Spain, noted for a defeat by the Spaniards of the French in 1812, and the consequent retaking of the town.

ASTYAGES, king of the Medes, began his reign 594 B. C. He was the grandfather of Cyrus the Great, and is called by some the Ahas-

erus of the scripture. He was taken prisoner by his grandson, Cyrus, who put an end to the kingdom of the Medes.

ATABALIPA, or **ATAHUALPA**, the last of the incas of Peru. The Spaniards, headed by Pizarro, were hospitably entertained by him and his people, and in return treacherously held him in captivity. The inca offered, as a ransom, to fill a room with gold; the Spaniards took the treasure, and then basely burnt the monarch at the stake, 1533.

ATALANTA, a princess of Sciros, joined in fable with Hippomenes.

ATHENS, a celebrated city of Attica, founded about 1536 years before the Christian era, by Cecrops and an Egyptian colony. The history of the twelve first of its monarchs is mostly fabulous. After the death of Codrus the monarchical power was abolished, and the state was governed by thirteen perpetual, and 317 years after, by seven decennial, and lastly, B. C. 684, after an anarchy of three years, by annual magistrates, called Archons.

Under this democracy, the Athenians signalized themselves by their valor in the field, their munificence, and the cultivation of the fine arts; and were deemed so powerful by the Persians, that Xerxes, when he invaded Greece, chiefly directed his arms against Athens, which he took and burnt. Their military character was chiefly displayed in the battles of Marathon, of Salamis, of Platea, and of Mycale. After these immortal victories, they rose in consequence and dignity, and demanded the superiority in the affairs of Greece. The town was rebuilt and embellished by Themistocles, and a new and magnificent harbour erected. Their success made them arrogant, and they raised contentions among the neighbouring states, that they might aggrandize themselves by their fall. The luxury and intemperance, which had been long excluded from the city by the salutary laws of their countrymen, Draco and Solon, crept by degrees among all ranks of people, and soon after all Greece united to

destroy that city, which claimed a sovereign power over all the rest. The Peloponnesian war, though at first a private quarrel, was soon fomented into an universal war; and the arms of all the states of Peloponnesus, [*Vid. Peloponnesiasum Bellum*] were directed against Athens, which, after twenty-eight years of misfortunes and bloodshed, was totally ruined, the 24th April, 404 years before the Christian era, by Lysander. After this, the Athenians were oppressed by thirty tyrants, and for a while laboured under the weight of their own calamities. They recovered something of their usual spirit in the age of Philip, and boldly opposed his ambitious views; but their short-lived efforts were not of great service to the interest of Greece, and they fell into the hands of the Romans, B.C. 86. The Romans, in the more polished ages of their republic, sent their youths to finish their education at Athens, and respected the learning, while they despised the military character of the inhabitants. The reputation which the Athenian schools had acquired under Socrates and Plato, was maintained by their degenerate and less learned successors: and they flourished with diminished lustre, till an edict of the emperor Justinian suppressed, with the Roman consulship, the philosophical meetings of the academy. It has been said by Plutarch, that the good men whom Athens produced, were the most just and equitable in the world; but that its bad citizens could not be surpassed in any age or country, for their impiety, perfidiousness, or cruelty. Their criminals were always put to death by drinking the juice of hemlock. The number of men able to bear arms at Athens in the reign of Cecrops was computed at 20,000, and there appeared no considerable augmentation in the more civilized age of Pericles; but in the time of Demetrius Phalerens there were found 21,000 citizens, 10,000 foreigners, and 40,000 slaves. Among the numerous temples and public edifices none was more celebrated than that of Minerva, which after

being burnt by the Persians, was re-built by Pericles, with the finest marble, and still exists a venerable monument of the hero's patriotism, and of the abilities of the architect.

ATHOS, a mountain of Macedonia, 150 miles in circumference, at the foot of which Xerxes made a trench of a mile and a half in length, into which he brought the sea-water, and conveyed his fleet over it, so that two ships could pass one another.

Athos is now called Monte Santo, famous for monasteries, said to contain some ancient and valuable manuscripts. Very recently a manuscript, of the eighth century, of a translation of the Bible into the Georgian language by St. Euphemius, has been discovered here.

ATLANTIS, a celebrated island mentioned by the ancients. Its situation was in the Atlantic, but its existence is doubted by some writers.

ATOSSA, a daughter of Cyrus, who was one of the wives of Cambyses, of Smerdis, and afterwards of Darius, by whom she had Xerxes. She is supposed by some to be the Vashiti of scripture.

ATTILA, the king of the Unds, who flourished between 433 and 454, rendered the Greek empire tributary, and invaded France, but was defeated on the Maine, in 451.

ATTALUS I. king of Pergamus, began his reign B.C. 241. He made great conquests in Ionia, and vigorously repelled Philip II. of Macedon. He died B.C. 198.

ATTALUS III. nephew of the preceding, began his reign B.C. 138. He put to death most of his own family, and a great number of other persons, of whom he was suspicious. He died B.C. 133, leaving his goods to the Romans, upon which they seized the whole of his dominions, and thus put an end to the kingdom of Pergamus.

ATTICA, a country of Achaia; originally the Ionians, who settled there. The most famous of its cities is called Athens, whose inhabitants sometimes bear the name of Attici. Attica was famous for its gold and silver mines, which constituted the best part of the public revenues,

HISTORY.

Its inhabitants were numbered, in the 116th olympiad, at 31,000 citizens, and 400,000 slaves, within 174 villages, some of which were considerable towns.

ST. AUBIN, in France, celebrated for the victory obtained over the duke of Brittany, afterwards Louis XII. and the duke of Orleans, by Anne de Beaujeu, regent, in 1488.

AUGEAS, in mythology, king of Elis, owner of the stables miraculously cleaned by Hercules.

AUGSBURGH, celebrated as the place where the Lutherans protested, in 1530, against the persecutions of Charles V. and hence acquired the name of Protestants.

AUGURS, certain officers at Rome, who foretold future events. There were generally five things from which the augurs drew omens: the phenomena of the heavens; flying of birds; manner of eating of the sacred chickens; from the crossing, &c. of quadrupeds; and, lastly, from different casualties, called *stræ*, such as spitting salt upon a table, or wine upon one's clothes, hearing strange noises, stumbling or sneezing, meeting a wolf, hare, fox, or pregnant bitch. From such superstitious notions the Romans drew their prophecies.

AUGUSTUS, (Gaius Julius Cæsar Octavianus), was the son of Gaius Octavius, by Attia, the niece of Julius Cæsar. He was born B. C. 63, and having received a liberal education, was adopted by Julius Cæsar. He was at Apollonia in Epirus, when his uncle was assassinated; and, on receiving the news, returned to Rome, where he found two parties, the republicans, and the followers of Antony and Lepidus. Octavius was treated with great respect by the magistrates, and principal citizens; but Antony treated him with contempt. When Antony was proscribed, he joined the army that was sent against him; but afterwards he thought it prudent to enter into a treaty with that commander; and these two leaders, together with Lepidus, formed the famous triumvirate, by which they agreed to enjoy an equal portion of autho-

rity for five years. Soon after this, Octavius gratified the malevolent spirit of his associates, by sacrificing his friend Cicero; and, in short, the triumvirs filled Rome with the blood of its best citizens. On the death of Brutus at Philippæ, another partition took place, Antony and Octavius sharing the Roman empire, and Lepidus taking the African provinces. Octavius obtained Rome, and gave his sister, Octavia, in marriage to Antony. At length Lepidus was deposed, and a difference broke out between Antony and Octavius, which ended in the destruction of the former, and the establishment of the latter in the empire. In the thirty-sixth year of his age, the senate gave him the title of Augustus. It also complimented him by changing the name of the month *Sexilis*, in which he came to the consulate, to August. After attaining the imperial dignity, he seems to have corrected his eager temper, and to have conducted himself with moderation. He made some good regulations in the government; reducing the number of the senators from 1000 to 600, and raising the degree of wealth which was to qualify them for that dignity. He also set about reforming the public morals. Augustus carried his arms with success into Gaul, Germany, and the East; but in the latter part of his life the Romans suffered some severe losses in Germany. He died at Rome A. D. 14. He so greatly improved Rome, that it was said "he had found it brick, but left it marble." He was a liberal encourager of men of letters, and his reign was called the age of literature. Virgil and Horace particularly were patronised by him, and from him. The most prosperous period of any state is called its Augustan age.

AULUM GIL, a great mogul, who was murdered in 1750.

AULUM II. son of the former, who allied himself to the English colonel Clive, in 1759, and hence the establishment of the English in India, but afterwards quarrelling with them was defeated at Buxen, in 1764; after which, he reigned under the protection of the Eng,

1800, ceding to the English company Bengal, Bahar, Orissa, and the northern Circars. He was captured by the English at Agre, in 1802, and died in 1807.

AUMONT (John d') marshal of France under Henry IV. was killed at the siege of Comper, 1605, aged 72.

AURELIANUS, called the restorer of the world, became emperor of Rome in 270, subdued Zenobia, queen of Palmyra, erected a new wall round Rome, but was slain in 275.

AURELIUS, (Probus) succeeded to the empire in 276, and maintained successful wars against the Germans, Goths, and Persians, but was murdered in 282.

AURELIUS, (Omar) succeeded the former, but was killed in the war against Persia.

AURENG-ZEBE, the great mogul, was third son of Schah Jehan, and born in 1658. In his youth he put on the appearance of religious sanctity; but, in 1686, he and his brother Morad seized Agre, and made their father prisoner. Soon afterwards he put Morad and his other brother, Dara, to death. He behaved tenderly however to his father, who died in 1696. Aureng-zebe greatly enlarged his dominions, and became so formidable, that all the eastern princes sent him ambassadors. He died at Ahmednager in 1707, aged 80. By his will he divided his possessions among his sons.

AUSTERLITZ, the name given by Napoleon to a battle, called by the soldiers, the battle of the three emperors, from the presence of Napoleon, the victor, and the opposing monarchs, Alexander of Russia, and Francis of Austria, on the field. The Russian army had, on the 1st of December, made a movement to turn the right of the French; his dispositions for battle were made, and the different general officers posted in their proper places. Napoleon, with Berthier, Junot, and his état-major, was in reserve, with ten battalions of his guards, ten of grenadiers, and forty pieces of cannon, to push forward wherever necessary. The Russians, it is said, passed the

night in noise and drunkenness. At dawn, however, which rose exceedingly fine, they began the attack with great sobriety; a dreadful cannonade took place along their line, which, with the noise of 100,000 half-disciplined men, made a tremendous uproar. However, in less than an hour, their left was cut off, a body of them were driven into an adjacent lake, their conquest was complete, and their loss immense. Of 25,000 Austrians, and 30,000 Russians, an entire moiety is stated to have been destroyed. The French only admit to have had 600 killed, and twice that number wounded.

AUSTRIA. The history of Austria is until lately merged in that of Germany; duke Frederic III. in so early a period as 1440, being made the first emperor of these states, and the imperial dignity remaining in his family 300 years. By the marriage of his successor, Burgundy, and the seventeen provinces of the Netherlands, were added to the hereditary dominions, and Ferdinand I. procured for the eldest son of the house of Austria, the title of King of the Romans. George I. and II. had, and advanced, claims upon the succession, as heirs of the house of Austria; but, by the celebrated pragmatic grant, this was set aside, in favour of the queen of Hungary, and George II. subsequently fought in person, at the battle of Dettlingen, to support her title. It was at last given to her through her husband the duke of Lorraine. In 1804, on the dissolution of the German states, the archduchy was erected into an empire, under its present monarch Francis. This prince embarked with seal in the confederacy against the government of France; but the war proving unsuccessful, he concluded the treaty of Campo Formio in 1796, by which the Netherlands were ceded to France. A second war terminated in the peace of Luneville, 1801. In 1804, the emperor joined a third coalition against France; but the allies being every where defeated by Buonaparte, Francis was obliged to conclude the treaty of Presburg, in 1805.

HISTORY.

Bonaparte then set aside the Germanic constitution; Francis, who had taken the new title of emperor of Austria, was compelled to absolve all the German states from their reciprocal duties towards the empire, A. D. 1806, and Bonaparte placed himself at the head of a confederation of the princes of the Rhine; and excluded from common protection all those states of the ancient German empire that did not accede to this act of federation. Bavaria, Wirtemberg, Baden, Burg, Darmstadt, Nassau, Hohenzollern, &c. were united by this compact to the political interests of France; and her ruler virtually raised himself to the head of the Germanic empire. In 1809, Austria again took the field against France, but being defeated at Wagram, the war terminated by the treaty of Vienna, in which Francis ceded considerable portions of the Austrian territories to the allies of Napoleon, and soon afterwards gave him his daughter Maria Louisa in marriage. In 1813, Austria again combined with Russia, Prussia, Great Britain, &c. and united its forces in the invasion of France, in obtaining possession of Paris, and in de-throning Napoleon; and, on the return of Bonaparte to France, in 1815, she again combined with the other powers of Europe to de-throne him, and succeeded. The future tranquillity of Germany was provided for by a solemn act of confederation, signed at Vienna, in 1815, by its sovereigns and free cities.

AUSTRIAN DYNASTY.—EMPERORS OF GERMANY, from CHAR-

LEMAONE.	
Charlemagne	A. D. 800
Lothario I.	840
Lewis II.	855
Charles the Bald	874
Louis III.	875
Charles the Fat	879
Arnold	888
Guy and Lambert	891
Louis the Infant	899
Conrad I.	911
Henry the Fowler	918
Otho the Great	936
Otho II.	973
Otho III.	983

Henry II.	A. D. 1002
Conrad II.	1024
Henry III.	1030
Henry IV.	1036
Henry V.	1106
Lothario II.	1125
Conrad III.	1123
Frederick I.	1151
Henry VI.	1190
Philip	1197
Otho IV.	1208
Frederick II.	1212
William, or Conrad IV.	1250
Rodolphus of Hapsburgh	1273
Adolphus of Nassau	1291
Albert I. of Austria	1298
Henry VII.	1309
Lewis V.	1314
John and Philip the Long	1317
Charles IV.	1343
Gunther of Schwartzburg	1349
Wenceslaus	1378
Frederick & Rob. Palatine	1400
Joseph of Moravia, Sigismund of Luxemburg	1410
Albert of Austria	1433
Frederick III.	1440
Maximilian I.	1483
Charles V.	1519
Ferdinand I.	1558
Maximilian II. of Hungary	1564
Rodolphus II.	1576
Mathias	1612
Ferdinand II.	1619
Ferdinand III.	1639
Leopold I.	1656
Joseph I.	1705
Charles VI.	1711
Charles VII. of Bavaria	1743
Francis I. of Lorraine	1745
Joseph II.	1765
Leopold II.	1790
Francis	1792

who took the title of Em-

peror of Austria, Aug. 11, 1804

AVARES, a tribe of Tartars, who in the sixth century overran Dacia, Sclavonia, and Dalmatia.

AVIGNON, the residence of Clement VII. and Benedict XIII. during the schism of the church between 1378 and 1417.

AYESHA, the wife of Mohammed, opposed the succession of Ali; but was taken prisoner, and died in 677

AYSCOUGH, (Sir George,) British admiral, in the time of the Commonwealth, who distinguished himself against the Dutch, by whom he was taken prisoner.

B.

BABAR, a descendant of Tamerlane, and king of Bukharia, whence being driven by the Uzbek Tartars, he marched into India, and overthrowing the second Gaurian dynasty, founded the empire of the great Moguls, at Delhi, in 1525. He also subdued Bahar, and died in 1530.

BABYLON (the city) had 100 brazen gates; and its walls, which were cemented with bitumen, and greatly enlarged and embellished by the activity of Semiramis, measured 480 stadia in circumference. It is a mass of shapeless ruins, though its chief buildings are still described by travellers. Babylon became famous for the death of Alexander, and for the new empire which was afterwards established there under the Seleucidae. Its greatness was so reduced in succeeding ages, according to Pliny, that in his time it was but a desolate wilderness.

BACTRIA, now Chorassan, anciently a monarchy, was subdued, first, by Alexander the Great, and then by the Parthians and Scythians, who held it till expelled by the Huns. It lay betwixt the Oxus, Scythia, mount Paropamisus, and Margiana.

BADAJOS, a strong fortified town of Spain, celebrated for the defeat of the Spaniards, in 1109, by Joseph, king of Morocco; and in later times for its murderous capture by storm, by the British, in 1812.

BADEN, grand duchy, in Swabia, became an independent state under Herman, in 1074. It was afterwards divided for two centuries, but reunited in 1771. During the wars of the French revolution it acquired Constance, and some other territory.

BAGDAD, founded in 766 by the caliph Almanzor, and its prosperity completed the ruin of the neighbouring city of Babylon. It was twice taken by the Turks and Tartars, and nearly destroyed; and, in 1638, Amurath IV. took it, and butchered the greater part of its inhabitants in cold blood.

BAHAR, anciently a kingdom of Hindostan, which, in 1763, became part of the British empire.

BAIRD, Sir David, a successful English general, who, on May 4, 1799, took Seringapatam by storm; when the sultan Tippoo was killed, and the Mysorean territories divided.

BAJAZET I. sultan of the Turks, succeeded his father Amurath I. in 1389, and soon after put his younger brother to death. He pushed his conquests far into Asia and Europe, and in 1396 gained a great victory over the Christian army under Sigismund, king of Hungary; but in 1402 he experienced a great defeat from the famous Tamerlane, on the plains of Angora, when he was taken prisoner. He is said to have been confined by Tamerlane in an iron cage till his death in 1403. His sons contended for the throne, by which the empire suffered.

BAJAZET II. began to reign in 1481, and was murdered in 1512.

BALBEC, or Eliopolis, the city of the sun, in Syria, remarkable for the beauty of its ruins, and recorded to have been a Roman station in the time of Augustus.

BALDWIN I. emperor of the east, was the son of Baldwin, count of Flanders, and distinguished himself so greatly in the fourth crusade, that, on the conquest of Constantinople by the Latins in 1204, he was chosen emperor. But the Greeks, assisted by the king of Bulgaria, defeated Baldwin, who being made prisoner, was never heard of afterwards.

BALDWIN I. king of Jerusalem, was the son of Eustace, count of Boulogne, and accompanied Godfrey, his brother, into Palestine, where he gained the country of Edessa. He succeeded his brother on the throne of Jerusalem in 1100, and the year following took Antipatris, Cesarea, and Azotus. In 1104 he took Acre, after a long siege. He died 1118, and was interred on Mount Calvary.

BALDWIN III. took Ascalon and other places, and died in 1163.

BALIOL (John de), king of Scotland, a claimant for the crown on the death of Queen Margaret. Edward III. being made arbiter, awarded it to Baliol against Robert Bruce. Baliol remonstrated against the interference of Edward in his government, and took up arms; the battle of Dunbar followed, in which Baliol was defeated, and committed to the tower. At the intercession of the pope, he was released, and died upon his own estate in France.

BALLINACH, in the county of Down, memorable for a sanguinary slaughter of the Irish peasantry in 1798.

BALLINAMUCK, in Ireland, near which some French, co-operating with the peasantry, surrendered to the British, under Marquis Cornwallis, after a surprising march through Ireland.

BANBURY, a town of Oxfordshire, celebrated for the defeat of the Lancastrian party under the earl of Pembroke, by the earl of Warwick, for the aspirant Duke of York, 1469.

BANK of ENGLAND, was established in 1694; and merits historical notice, as the machine by which the British funding system has been carried on, and those immense sums raised which enabled Britain, during the late wars, to subsidize all Europe.

BANNOCKBURN, a place of Scotland, near Stirling, celebrated by the Scots, for a signal defeat given there, 1314, by Robert Bruce, to the English army, in the presence of Edward II. It decided the independence of Scotland. Another battle was fought here by James III. against his subjects, in 1468, during which he lost his life.

BANTAM, a kingdom in Java, controlled by the Dutch since 1595. It was taken by the English in 1811, who deposed the sultan; and was restored to the Dutch in 1814.

BANTRY-BAY, on the south coast of Ireland, the site of a conflict in 1690, between a French fleet and admiral Herbert.

BARBARY, states important in ancient history as the site of Carthage. This coast afterwards

formed part of the Roman empire, and was overrun by the Vandals under Genseric, and subsequently by the followers of Mohammed. The whole coast is now chiefly remarkable for the flourishing sea-ports of Tunis and Tripoli; for Algiers, a piratical state; and for the barbarous despotism of the Emperor of Morocco. Under this and other despots, together with the encroachments of the sandy deserts, these countries have sunk into the lowest condition.

BARBAROSSA, a celebrated Turkish admiral, who subdued Algiers, Tunis, and Yemen. He ravaged the coasts of Italy in the reign of Suleiman II.

BARCELONA, in Spain, celebrated for its obstinate adherence to the Austrian sovereignty, after the other powers of Europe had retired from the succession war; and for the resolute defence which it made against the Duke of Berwick, in 1714, when the sufferings of the inhabitants were unparalleled.

BARFLEUR, the place in Normandy whence William the Conqueror embarked for England in 1066.

BAR-LE-DUC, a town of France, near which, in 1037, the emperor Conrad defeated Eudes, count of Champagne.

BARNET, near London, celebrated for the defeat of the Earl of Warwick (surnamed the King-maker,) by Edward IV. 1471.

BAROSSA, the scene of the repulse of the French under Marshal Victor, by the English, commanded by General Graham.

BARTH, (John) a French naval commander, who, from 1692 to 1702, distinguished himself by his destruction of British vessels. He landed at Newcastle, and burnt 200 houses. He was ennobled, and died aged 51.

BARTHOLOMEW'S DAY, horrid massacre of, perpetrated upon the Protestants of Paris, on the 24th and 25th of August, 1572, by the Catholic faction opposed to that of the King of Navarre.

BARTON, (Elizabeth), commonly called "the Holy Maid of Kent," an impostor in the reign

of Henry VIII. in favour of the catholic religion. She was executed in 1534, at Tyburn, where she confessed her imposture, and threw the blame upon her employers.

BARRERE, one of the most distinguished men concerned in the events of the French revolution, previous to which he had been distinguished as an eloquent advocate. He was a member of the National Assembly, and stood foremost among the enlightened advocates of liberty. He was elected to the convention in 1792, and was president of that body during the trial of the king. He was afterwards appointed one of that famous committee of public safety, by the energy of whose measures domestic treasons, excited by foreign influence, were frustrated, and the armies of foreign despots every where defeated. In the subsequent sanguinary contest of factions, Barrere was proscribed, was not employed by Napoleon, and, on the return of the Bourbons in 1814, was by them exiled.

BASILIUS I. called the Macedonian emperor of the east, to which station he came from that of a common soldier. In 857, he married the emperor Michael, and took possession of the throne. He defeated the Saracens at Casarea, and, in 836, was killed by a stag in hunting.

BASILOWITZ (John), emperor of Russia, which country he recovered from the dominion of the Tartars, and thus he laid the foundation of the Russian empire. He was the first who assumed the title of Czar. He added Astracane his territories, and died in 1694.

BASING, a town of Essex, near which Ethelfred and Alfred sustained a defeat by the Danes, 871.

BASSANO, in Italy, noted for the total overthrow of the Austrians by Bonaparte, after a pursuit of six days, in 1796.

BASSORA, a famous sea-port near the Persian gulf, built in 656 by the caliph Omar, and alternately occupied by the Turks and Persians.

BATAVIA, the capital of Java, founded by the Dutch in 1619, captured by the British in 1811, and restored in 1816.

BATAVIANS, the aboriginal inhabitants of Holland, who were extirpated in the fifth century, while in the sixth their neighbours, the Belgians, were subjected by the Franks.

BATTLE, a town in Sussex, the scene of a conflict between William the Norman and Harold, on the 14th of October 1066, which was gained by the former in consequence of a sham retreat, and confused pursuit, when Harold lost his life and crown.

BATTLES,	B. C.
The Horatii and Curiatii	469
Salamis	480
Eurymedon	470
Leuctra	373
Mantineæ	263
Chæronæa	338
Marathon	490
Granicus	334
Issus	333
Arbela	331
Gannæ	316
Pharsalia	47
Philippi	41
Actium	31

	A. D.
In Shropshire, when Caractacus was taken prisoner	51
Stamford	449
Aylesford	465
Orayford, in Kent	467
Mydwellly	468
Ipewich	466
Bath	470
Banbury	542
Bedford	571
Camelford	549, 908
Hatfield, in Yorkshire	633
Oswestry	641
Malertfield, in Shropshire	642
Gelling	651
Leeds	665
Landersfarne	740
Benson, in Oxfordshire	771
Hellston, in Cornwall	824
Romney	842
Somersetshire	843
Devonshire	915
London and Canterbury	992
Isle of Thanet	994
Assenden and Merton	971
Wilton, in Oxfordshire	972
Farnham, in Hampshire	994

HISTORY.

BATTLES.

Bury, in Suffolk	905
Edward & the Danes 910, 912	914
Griffith and Leofric	916
Maldon, in Essex	918
Chester	922
Stamford	923
Benfield	924
Widendane	938
Brombridge, in Northumb.	—
Ashden, in Essex	1016
Crossford	1038
Dunsinane	1054
Stamford-bridge	1066
Mastings, Oct. 14	—
Alnwick	1092
Tinchebray, Normandy	1106
Rouen, Normandy	1117
Brenneville, Normandy	1119
Valweves, in Portugal	1129
Cardigan, in Wales	1136
Northallerton, Aug. 22	1138
Lincoln	1141
Alnwick	1174
Ascalon, Sept. 16	1191
Gisors	1128
Bovines, July 25	1214
Lincoln, May 19	1217
Lewes, May 14	1264
Evesham, Aug. 5	1265
Chesterfield	1296
Dunbar, April 27	—
Falkirk, July 23	1298
Courtras, in Flanders	1302
Biggar	1303
Bannockburn, June 25	1314
Boroughbridge	1322
Halidon-hill, Berwick, 1222	1346
Cansant, in Flanders, Nov.	1337
Auberoche, in France	1344
Cressy, Aug. 26	1346
Durham, Oct. 17	—
Nevil's Cross, in Durham	1347
Poitiers, Sept. 19	1356
Auray, in Brittany	1363
Brignai, in Provence	—
Najara	1369
Rochelle	1371
Near Berwick	1378
Otterborn, July 21	1388
Nisbet, May 7	1402
Shrewsbury, July 22	1403
Monmouth, Mar. 11, May 11	1405
Agincourt, Oct. 25	1415
Beauge, April 8	1421
Crevent, June	1423
Verneuil, Aug. 16	1424
Herrings, Feb. 12	1429
Patay, June 10	—
Herberoy, in France.	1434
Basli, in Switzerland	1444

BATTLES.

Castillon, in Guienne	1452
St. Alban's, May 23	1455
Blorheath, Sept. 23	1459
Northampton, July 12	1460
Wakefield, Dec. 31	1460
Towton, March 29	1461
St. Alban's, on Shrove-Tues.	—
Mortimer's Cross	—
Hexham, May 15	1463
Banbury, July 26	1469
Stamford, March 19	1470
Barnet, April 14	1471
Tewkesbury, May 4	—
Bosworth, Aug. 22	1485
Stoke, June 6	1487
St. Aubin, in France	1493
Knocktow, Ireland	1491
Blackheath, June 22	1497
Flodden, Sept. 9	1512
Marignou in Italy, Oct. 12	1575
Pavia, in Italy	1524
Bicoca, in Italy	1622, 1625
Solway, Nov. 24	1522
Cerisoles, in Piedmont	1544
Musselborough, Scotland	1547
St. Quintin, Aug. 10	1557
Gravelines, in Flanders	1558
Dreux, in France	1563
Jarma, in Poictiers	1569
Ardavat, in Ireland	1569
Arques, in Normandy	1589
Blackwater, in Ireland	1597
Newport, in Flanders	1600
Luizen, Sept. 7	1623
Avein, in Liege, May	1635
Newcastle, in Northumb.	1637
Calloo, in Flanders	1638
Arras, June	1640
Hopton-heath, March 19	1642
Worcester, Sept. 23	—
Edgehill, Oct. 23	—
Brentford	—
Kilrush, Ireland	—
Liscarrol, Ireland	—
Liskerd, Cornwall, Jan. 19	1642
Hopton-heath, March 19	—
Barham Moor, March 20	—
Ross, Ireland, March	—
Rocroy, in France	—
Shatton, May 16	—
Lansdown, July 4	—
Round-away-down, July 13	—
Newbury, Sept. 20	—
Alresford, March 20	1644
Cropey-bridge, June 6	—
Friedburgh, in Swabia	—
Marston-moor, July 2	—
Newark	—
Newbury, Oct. 27	—
Aldern, May 15	1645

B A T

BATTLES.

Naseby, June	1740
Alford, July 2	—
Norlingen, Suabia, Aug. 2	—
Benburb, Ireland	1646
Kingston, in Surrey	1647
Knocknonesa, Ireland, Nov.	—
Rathmines, Ireland	1649
Dunbar, Sept. 2	1650
Worcester, Sept. 2	1651
Bothwell-bridge, June 22	—
Arras	1654
Brod, in Slavonia	1668
Zintzheim, in Germany	1674
Benefee, in Flanders	—
Mulhausen, Alsace, Dec. 21	—
Fehrbellin, June 18	1675
Altenheim, July 26	—
Bothwell-bridge, Scotland	1679
Argos	1683
Barkan, in Hungary	—
Vienna, July 16	—
Sedgemoor, Aug. 6	1685
Coron, European Turkey	—
Mohats, Aug. 4	1687
Hersan	—
Torven	1688
Walcourt	1689
Killikraukie.	—
Newton Butlers	—
Boyne, July 1	1690
Salusses, Aug. 8	—
Fleurus, July 12	—
Stafferda	—
Salankemen	1691
Leuse	—
Augrim, July 22	—
Portsheim	1692
Steinkirk	—
Landen, July 19	1693
Marfaglia, Oct. 8	—
Neckar	—
In Transylvania.	1695
Olasch	1696
Zenta	1697
Narva, Dec.	1700
Chiara, Aug. 6	1701
Riga	—
Carpi, in Modena	—
Gliasa, in Poland	1702
Fridlingen, in Suabia	—
Vittoria	—
Lauzara, in Italy, Aug. 15	—
Pultusk	1703
Eckeren, in Brabant, June 20	—
Donavert, July 2	1704
Panits	—
Blenheim, Aug. 2	—
Schlemburg	—
Mittau, July	1705
Cassano, in Italy	—

BATTLES.

Tierlemont	1706
Fraustadt, in Silesia	1706
Calcinato, in Italy	—
Ramilles, Whituesday	—
Turin, Sept. 7	—
Offenberg	1707
Callah, in Poland, April	—
Almanza, in Spain	—
Oudenard, June 20	1708
Holowzin, in Russia	—
Czarnanapata, Sept. 22	—
Lesno, in Poland	—
Gemaurothorf, in Poland	—
Winnendale, Sept. 25	—
Caya, May 17	1709
Pultowa, June 6	—
Malplaquete, Sept. 11	—
Runersheim	—
Gudina	—
Almanza, July 16	1710
Einburg	—
Saragossa, Aug. 20	—
Villa Viciosa, Dec. 12	—
Arlaux	1711
Gudebach	1712
Deunin, in Netherlands	—
Pulkowa	1712
Priburg	—
Preston, Nov. 12	1713
Dumblain, Nov. 12	—
Peterwarden, Aug. 5	1716
Belgrade, July 16	1717
Glenshields, June 10	1719
Babylah, Feb. 25	1722
Parma, June 29	1724
Guastell, Aug.	—
Bitonto	—
Parma	—
Secchia	—
Turks and Persians	1725
Bagnaluck, July 27	1727
Bog	1740
Krooka	1730
Kernal	—
Choczim, Hungary, July 21	—
Molwitz, April 10	1741
Williamstadt, July 22	—
Hilkersburg, April 6	1742
Czaslaw, May 7	—
Teyn	—
Brenau	1743
Campo Santo	—
Dettingen, June 15	—
Canl	1744
Landshut	1745
Friedberg, June 4	—
Pontenoy, April 30	—
Preston-Pans, Sept. 21	—
Erzerum	—
Falkirk, Scotland, Jan. 17	1746

HISTORY.

BATTLES.

	A. D.
Roucoux, April 12	1746
Gulloden, Scotland, Apr. 17	—
St. Lazaro, May 31	—
Placentia, June 15	—
Exilles, in Piedmont, July 6	—
Vall, in Flanders, June 20	1747
Lasselt, July 20	—
Arania, in India	1751
Bahoor, in India, Aug. 7	1752
Port du Quesne, July 9	1753
Lake of St. George, Sept. 8	—
Paraguay	—
Calcutta, June 1756	1759
Lowoschitz, Sept. 30	1756
Norkitten	1757
Plasie, E. Indies, Feb. 5	—
Prague, May 23	—
Reichenberg, in Bohemia	—
Kolin, June 12	—
Haslenbeck, July 25	—
Jagersdorf, Prussia, Aug. 3	—
Rosbach, Nov. 5	—
Breslau, Nov. 21	—
Lissa, Dec. 5	—
Hoya, Westphalia, Feb. 24	1758
Crevelt, June 23	—
Sandershausen, July 25	—
Mere, Aug. 5	—
Zorndorf, Aug. 25	—
Olmütz	—
Hockkirchen, Oct. 10	—
Landwerenhagen	—
Colies	—
Bergen, April 14	1759
Minden, Aug.	—
Zulichaw, Silesia, July 27	—
Peterswalde	—
Pasberg	—
Niagara, America, July 24	—
Warburg, Aug. 6	—
Montmorenci, Aug. 10	—
Onnersdorf, Aug. 12	—
Plains of Abraham, Sept. 13	—
Wandwash, E. Ind. Jan. 10	1760
Strehla, in Silesia	—
Near Quebec, April 28	—
Psauffendorf, Aug. 12	—
Torgau, Nov. 3	—
Fulda	—
Plains of Silleri	—
Langensaltze	1761
Slangeroode	—
Kirk-Denkern	—
Fillinghausen, July 16	—
Dippolswalda	1762
Graebenstein, June 4	—
Buckersdorf, July 23	—
Fredburgh, Hesse, Oct. 29	—
Homburg	—
Minden	—

BATTLES.

	A. D.
Johannisburg	1762
Buckr-Muhl	—
Bushy Bun, in America	1763
Nunas Nullas, E. Indies	—
Buxard, E. Indies	1764
Calpi, ditto	1765
Error, ditto	1767
Mulwaggle	1768
Choczim, April 30	—
Brailow, in Turkey	1770
Silistria, in Turkey	1773
Lexington, April 19	1775
Bunker's-hill, June 27	—
Long-Island, Aug. 27	1776
White Plains, Nov. 30	—
Brandy-Wine Creek, Sep. 13, 1777	—
Of the Lakes, July 5	—
Skenesborough, July 7	—
Bennington, Aug. 16	—
Albany	—
Saratoga, Oct. 7	—
Germantown, Oct. 14	—
St. Lueie	1778
Monmouth	—
Rhode Island	—
Briar Creek	1779
Stony Ferry	—
Cambden, Aug. 16	1780
Perimbancum, E. Indies	—
Waxau and Catauba	—
Broad River	1781
Guildford, March 16	—
Hobkirk's-Hill	—
Eutaw Springs	—
York Town, Oct. 29	—
Port Novo, E. Indies	—
Arnee	—
Bassarabia and Ukraine	1789
Finland	—
Foczani	—
Lasemarc	—
Ukraine	1790
Maczin	1791
Mons, April 30	—
Seringapatani, 1791; and	1792
At Longwy, Aug. 14	—
Grand-pre, Sept. 10	—
Valory, Sept. 20	—
Meneshould, Oct. 2	—
Conde, Oct. 2	—
Hanan, Oct. 27	—
Bossu, Nov. 4	—
Jamappe, Nov. 6	—
Arderlecht, Nov. 19	—
Thirlemont, Nov. 17	—
Varoux, Nov. 27	—
Hockheim, Jan. 7	1793
Aldenhoven, Feb. 26	—
Aix-la-Chapelle, Jan. 12	—
Tongres, March 6	—

BATTLES.

Jurvienden, March 18
 Thirlemont, March 19
 Lovaine, March, 23
 Coblenz, April 1
 Cassel, April 7
 Tournay, May 8
 St. Amand & Maulde, May 10
 Valenciennes, May 23
 Mannheim, May 30
 Furnes, June 21; 26
 Villiers, July 18
 Cambray, Aug. 9
 Lincelles, Aug. 18
 Furnes Aug. 21
 Rexmond, Aug. 29
 Dunkirk, Sept. 7
 Quesnoy, Sept. 11
 Limbach, Sept. 12
 Menin, Sept. 15
 Toulon, Oct. 1
 Weissenburg, Oct. 14
 Maubeuge, Oct. 16
 Birlmont
 Orchies, Oct. 20
 Wanzenaw, Oct. 25
 Landau, Nov. 29
 Toulon, Nov. 19
 Lebach, Nov. 27
 Roussillon, Dec. 11
 Perpignan, Dec. 20
 Oppenheim, Jan. 8
 Waterloo, Jan. 23
 Werwick, March 1
 Bayonne, March 19
 Perle, March 23
 Cateau, March 28
 Cracow, April 4
 Durkheim, April 5
 Piedmont, April 6
 Crombech, April 14
 Arlon, April 17
 Warsaw, April 21
 Landrencey, April 24
 Cambray, ditto
 Cateau, April 26
 Courtray, April 29
 Ostend, May 5
 Montesquan, May 1
 Aost, May 2
 Saorgia, May 8
 Tournay, May 10
 Courtray, May 12
 Mons, May 16
 Tournay, May 18
 Bouillon, ditto
 Tournay, May 22
 Lantern, May 23
 Lithuania, June 3
 Elliczke, ditto
 Barcelona, June 14

A. D.

1793

1794

BATTLES.

Charleroi, June 17
 Cracow, ditto
 Aost, June 26
 Euyceerda, ditto
 Blonie, July 7
 Mannheim, July 12
 Dorbilos, July 19
 Fontarabia, Aug. 2
 Zogre, Aug. 22
 Bellegarde, Aug. 26
 Valley of Leira, Sep. 8
 Maestricht, Sep. 18
 Clermont, Sep. 20
 Piedmont, Sep. 23
 Posnania, Sep. 24
 Kophir Basse, Sep. 25
 Milan, Sep. 30
 Emmerick, Oct. 2
 Warsaw, Oct. 12
 Druten, Oct. 26
 Pampeluna, Oct. 28
 Nimeguen, Nov. 4
 Pendomir, Nov. 16
 Navarre, Nov. 26
 Mentz, Dec. 1
 On the Waal, Jan. 11
 Nantes, Jan. 18
 Catalonia, March 5
 Neve Munster, March 3, 18
 At Figuras, April 5
 Piedmont, April 12
 Pontas, in Catalonia, June 14
 Piedmont, June 14, 27, July 1
 Pampeluna, July 2
 Bilboa, July 17
 Quiberon, July 21
 Urutia, July 30
 Vittoria, Aug. 14
 Piedmont, Aug. 20
 La Pietra, Aug. 31
 On the Lahn, Sep. 19
 Mannheim, Sep. 23
 Piedmont, Oct. 1
 On the Mayne, Oct. 11
 Mentz, Oct. 29
 Worms, Nov. 8
 Moselle, Nov. 22
 Deux Ponts, Nov. 28
 Alsentz, Dec. 8
 Piedmont, April 14
 Lodi, May 11
 Mantua, May 20
 Near Wetslaer, June 4
 Near Kirpen, June 29
 Near Nuremburg, Aug. 18
 Neuwied & Amberg, Aug. 24
 Near Munich, Sep. 11
 Near Limberg, Sep. 18
 Ishy, on the Leck, Sep. 19
 In Italy, Jan. 19 and 27

A. D.

1794

1795

1796

1796

1797

HISTORY.

BATTLES.

Upper Rhine, May 7	1797
Kilcullen, May 23	1798
Naas, May 23	—
Stratford on Slaney, May 23	—
At Backestown, May 25	—
At Dunleven, May 25	—
At Taragh, May 26	—
At Carlow, May 27	—
At Monasterevan, same day	—
At Kildare, May 28	—
Ballacanoe, June 1	—
Newtonberry, June 1	—
New Ross, June 5	—
Antrim, the same day	—
Arklow, June 9	—
Ballynahinch, June 13	—
Ovidstown, June 19	—
Ballynarus, June 20	—
Connaught, Sep. 7	—
Near Naples, Jan. 18	1799
Stockach, March 14 & 20	—
Verona, March 5, 25, 26, & 30	—
April 5	—
Cremona, April 9 & 30	—
Milan, April 27	—
Cassano, April 27	—
Acre, April 16	—
Adda, March 26, 31, May 5	—
Alessandria, May 17	—
Zurich, June 4	—
Periapatam, E. Indies, May 4	—
Croire, May 7	—
Adda, May 23	—
Acre, May 27	—
Naples, June 5	—
Parma, July 12	—
Novi, Aug. 15	—
Tranto, June 19	—
Manheim, Aug. 12	—
Zurich, Sep. 24	—
Mondovi, Nov. 6	—
Philipsburgh, Dec. 3	—
Coni	—
Genoa, Dec. 12	—
Novi, Jan. 8	1800
Savona, in Italy, April 8	—
Veragio, April 10	—
Stockach, May 1	—
Moskirch, May 3	—
Riss, May 9	—
Broni, June 10	—
Marengo, June 14	—
Hohenlinden, Nov. 3	—
On the Mincio, Dec. 25	—
Rhamonia, Egypt, Mar. 21	1801
Ferruckabad, Nov. 17	1804
Bhurtpore, E. Indies, April 2	1805
Guntzburgh, Oct. 2	—
Ulm, Oct. 19	—

BATTLES.

Moelk, Nov. 10	1805
Ansterlitz, Dec. 2	—
Maida, July 6	1806
Castel Nuova, Sept. 29	—
Auerstadt, Oct. 3	—
Eylau, Feb. 7	1807
Friedland, June 14	—
Baylen, July 20	1808
Vimiera, Aug. 21	—
Tudela, Nov. 23	—
Corunna, Jan. 16	1809
Braga, March 19	—
Medellin, March 28	—
Plaffenhoffen, April 19	—
Abensberg, April 20	—
Landshut, April 21	—
Eckmull, April 22	—
Ebersberg, May 3	—
Oporto, May 11	—
Aspern & Essling, May 21, 22	—
Raab, June 14	—
Wagram, July 5	—
Talavera de la Reyna, July 27	—
Ocana, Nov. 19	—
Buzaco, Sep. 27	1810
Pla, near Tarragona, Jan. 15, 1811	—
Lafesat, Feb. 11	—
Barossa, March 5	—
Parma, March 10	—
Albuera, May 16	—
Buenos Ayres, May 18	—
Radshuck, June 4, Oct. 14	—
Ximena, Sept. 18	—
Ciudad Rodrigo, Sept. 25	—
Puch, Sagantum, Oct. 25	—
Cavares & Merida, Oct. 28	—
Plains of Bornos, June 1	1812
Castalla, July 21	—
Salamanca, July 22	—
Mohilow, July 23	—
Ostroono, July 25, 28	—
Polotsk, July 30, 31	—
Dressa, Aug.	—
Smolensko, Aug. 16	—
Polotsk, Aug. 16, 17	—
Heights of Valentina, Aug. 19	—
Moskwa or Borodino, Sept. 7	—
Queen's Town, Oct. 13	—
Polotsk, Oct. 20	—
Malo-Yaroslavetz, Oct. 24	—
Visma, Nov. 3	—
Dorogbudsch, Nov. 7	—
Witepsk, Nov. 14	—
Krasnoi, Nov. 16	—
Borisow, Nov. 21	—
Berezina, Nov. 28	—
Wilna, Dec. 11	1812
Kowno, Dec. 14	—
Kalitch, Feb.	1813
French Town, Canada, Jan. 23	—

BATTLES.

Bejar, Spain, Feb. 20
 Bunenburg, April 2
 Castella, April 13
 Letzen, May 2
 Mockern, April 5
 Alberstadt, May 7
 Konigswerden, May 19, 20
 Wurtzchen, May 21
 Miami, May
 Fort George, Niagara, May 27
 Burlington Heights, June 6
 Vittoria, June 21
 Valley of Bastan, July 24
 Pyrenees, July 28
 San Marcial, July 31, Aug. 4
 Bober, banks of, Aug. 21
 Goldsberg, Aug. 22
 Jouer, Aug. 26, 27
 Dresden, Aug. 28
 Toplitz, Aug. 30
 Dennewitz, Sept. 8
 Ordal, Pass of, Sept. 12
 Domitz, Sept. 16
 Elster, Oct. 3
 Moravian Village, Oct. 3
 Mockern, Oct. 14
 Leipsic, Oct. 16, 18
 Hanau, Oct. 29, 30
 St. Jean de Luz, Nov. 10
 Passage of Neve, Dec. 10, 13
 Christler's Points, Nov. 14
 Blackrock, Dec. 30
 Valladolid, Dec.
 Bozzolo, Jan. 7, 8
 Marne, Jan. 27
 Brienne, Jan. 29
 Rothiere, Feb. 1
 Champ-aubert, Feb. 10, 12
 Janvilliers, Feb. 14
 Garris, Feb. 15
 Nangis, Feb. 17
 Montereau & Bray, Feb. 18
 Orthes, Feb. 25
 Reggio, March 5
 Laon, March 9
 Passage of the Taro, Mar. 12
 Rheims, March 13
 Tarbes, March 20
 Arcis-sur-Aube, March 21
 Fere Champenoise, March 25
 Heights of Fontenoy, Mar. 30
 Toulouse, April 10
 Arazua, valley of, June 18
 Chipawa, July 5, 28
 Baltimore, Sept. 12
 Ferrara, April 12
 Torentino, May 2, 3
 Ligny, June 16
 Waterloo, June 18
 Algiers

A. D.
 1813

BAVARIA, a large district of Germany, raised, by Napoleon, in 1805, to a kingdom. In 1701, Maximilian Emanuel formed an alliance with France, owing to which he was put under the ban of the empire, and Bavaria governed by commissioners from the battle of Blenheim till 1741, when he was restored. His son Charles Albert, opposed Maria Theresa, by claiming the empire, but was defeated. During the war of the French revolution, France availed itself of the jealousy of Bavaria against Austria, and exiled one at the expense of the other; but the families are now united by marriage.

BEACHY HEAD, a promontory of Sussex, off which, in 1690, a French fleet obtained a victory over the combined English and Dutch fleets.

BEAUFORT, (Henry, Cardinal), brother of Henry IV. king of England, bishop of Lincoln, afterwards of Winchester, and chancellor of the kingdom. In 1431 he crowned Henry VI. in the great church of Paris. He is strongly suspected of having directed the assassination of Humphry duke of Gloucester.

1814

BECKET, (Cardinal) originally a favourite with Henry II. who made him tutor to his son, and heaped spiritual and temporal honours upon him. On his election to the see of Canterbury, in 1162, he resigned the office of chancellor, and assuming all the arrogance of supreme pontiff, bent himself to oppose the reformation intended by the king amongst the clergy. Their enormities had disgusted the whole kingdom; and the archbishop screened the most abandoned, under the pretext that they were not amenable to the civil power. After a series of hostilities between the king and himself, many references to the pope, excommunications, and anathemas, reconciliations, and fresh quarrels, on the archbishop's refusal to withdraw his excommunication of some bishops, which was felt to lie very hard upon them, the king, in a fit of passion, reproached his courtiers for permitting him to be so long

and so ignobly tormented. On which, four knights went down and killed him at Canterbury. He was declared a saint by the holy see, and his tomb was much visited by pilgrims till the reformation.

BEDFORD, (John, duke of), the third son of Henry IV. king of England. In 1423 he commanded the English army in France, and the same year was named regent of that kingdom for Henry VI. whom he caused to be crowned at Paris. He defeated the French fleet near Southampton, made himself master of Cotoi, entered Paris with his troops, beat the duke of Alençon, and made himself master of France. He died at Rouen, in 1435.

BELA, the name of four kings of Hungary. In the reign of Bela IV. in 1241, the Moguls laid waste Hungary, but it was recultivated by Italians and Germans.

BELENBERG, in Germany, where, in 1793, the French suffered a defeat by the Austrians.

BELGRADE, a frontier town between Austria and Turkey, and the object of many sieges and contests. It was taken by Soliman in 1522; again retaken in 1688, and lost in 1690; once more retaken in 1717, after the memorable siege by prince Eugene. The Turks again surprised it in 1739, but in 1789 it was retaken by the Austrians under Laudhan, but restored at the peace in 1791. In 1806 it was taken by the Servians under Paswan Oglou.

BELISARIUS, general of the armies of the emperor Justinian. He ended the war in which that prince was engaged with Cabades, king of Persia, by a treaty of peace in 531. The year after he took Carthage, and made prisoner Giliher, who had usurped the throne of the Vandals. Belisarius entered Constantinople in triumph in 533. He was next sent against the Goths in Italy, and arriving on the coasts of Sicily, he took Catania, Syracuse, Palermo, and other places. He then proceeded to Naples, which he took, and marched to Rome. After this he conquered Vitiges, king of the Goths, sent him to Constantinople, and refused the crown,

which was offered him. For these great exploits he was regarded as the saviour of the empire, and medals are yet extant which bear this inscription, *Belisarius gloria Romanorum*.

He was soon obliged to go into the east against Chosroes I. king of Persia, and having succeeded, he returned into Italy, from whence he expelled the Huns in 558. Three years afterwards this great man was accused, by the nobles, to the emperor, of a design upon the throne; and Justinian, with the jealousy of an old man, was persuaded to confiscate his estates. The story of his being deprived of sight, and obliged to beg for bread, is a modern fiction.

BELLE ISLE, in the Bay of Biscay, celebrated for a sea-fight in 1759; between the English under Hawke, and the French under Conflans, in which the former gained a decisive victory. The island was afterwards taken, but restored at the peace in 1763.

BELLE ISLE, marshal, a celebrated general in the war to maintain the pragmatic sanction, who rendered himself memorable by a fine retreat from Prague.

BELUS, the founder of the Babylonian empire, flourished 1332 years B. C. The temple of Belus was the most ancient and most magnificent in the world. It was originally the tower of Babel, but was converted into a temple. It had lofty towers, and it was enriched by all the succeeding monarchs till the age of Xerxes, who, after his unfortunate expedition against Greece, plundered and demolished it. Among the riches it contained, were many statues of massy gold, one of which was forty feet high.

BENBOW, (John) English admiral, who, being sent by king William to the West Indies, relieved the colonies, and in a subsequent engagement, through the cowardice or neglect of the other commanders, was engaged singly with the French fleet; and persisted, in spite of a dangerous wound he had received, till the enemy bore away. He then made signal of pursuit, but was again

deserted. He died soon after of his wounds and of chagrin. The officers were tried and punished.

BENDAB, a town near the Black sea, famous as the place at which Charles XII. took up his residence after his defeat at Pultowa, in 1709, and where, in 1711, the Turks captured him, after a romantic resistance. This place was, in 1770, taken by storm by the Russians, when they butchered the inhabitants, and burnt the place.

BENEDICT, the assumed name of popes. The most noted are these:—Benedict III. elected pope in 855, and opposed by an antipope called Anastasius.—Benedict V. chosen in 904, and opposed by Leo VIII. who was supported by the emperor Otho. The Roman people were obliged to abandon the cause of Benedict, who died in 903.—Benedict VI. elected in 972, and murdered in prison by the antipope Boniface in 974.—Benedict VII. succeeded Donus II. in 975, and died in 983.—Benedict VIII. obtained the tiara in 1012. This pope united the warrior with the ecclesiastic, and defeated the Saracens and Greeks who invaded his territories. He died in 1024.—Benedict IX. successor of John XIX. ascended the pontifical chair at the age of twelve years, his father Alberic, count of Tusculum, having purchased his election. The Roman people obliged him to renounce the papal dignity, and retire to a monastery, where he died in 1054.—Benedict X. antipope. He was elected by some factions persons in 1058, but was driven out by the Romans, who elected Nicholas II. in his room: he died in 1059.—Benedict XI. was the son of a shepherd; and, in 1303, was raised to the popedom, on the death of Boniface VIII. He was poisoned by some ambitious cardinals a short time after his election.—Benedict XIV. elected for a sally of wit. He reformed abuses, introduced good regulations, cultivated letters, encouraged men of learning, and was a patron of the fine arts. He died in 1758.

BENEVENTUM, in Sicily, noted for the victory gained by the count

of Anjou over Manfred called "the tyrant." 1266.

BENGAL, an extensive kingdom of Hindostan, of which the institutes of Ackbar record a dynasty of sixty-one. It was conquered by the Afghan Mohammedans in 1534, and rendered dependant on the Great Mogul; but in 1540 it was rendered independent by sultan Sekunder, and so continued till 1558, when it was re-conquered by the mogul Shere Shah, and remained attached to the mogul empire till 1757, when, by conquest and treaty, it was occupied by the English, and now constitutes the nucleus of their Indian empire.

BENNINGTON, a town of Vermont, where Burgoyne's army suffered two defeats in 1777.

BENTINCK, (William) the first earl of Portland, was born in Holland of a noble family, and came to England with the prince of Orange, whose esteem he had engaged by exposing himself to the infection of the small-pox to serve his prince while ill of that disorder. He was employed in several high offices, military and civil, and attended his master on his death-bed. He died in 1709, and was buried in Westminster abbey.

BERENGER I. king of Italy, assumed the sovereignty on the death of Charles the first in 888. He was opposed by Guy, duke of Spoleto, who twice defeated him; but, by the assistance of Arnulph, king of Germany, Berenger recovered his throne, from whence he was again driven by Lambert, son of Guy, and restored by the Italian nobles in 896. Lewis Boson, king of Arles, next opposed Berenger, but, being made prisoner, was deprived of his eyes. Berenger enjoyed his kingdom peaceably twenty years, when it was ravaged by the Hungarians. In 915 he was crowned emperor, but a faction being raised in favour of Rocolph, king of Burgundy, a battle was fought at Placentia in 923, in which Berenger was defeated, and afterwards assassinated.

BERGEN, near Frankfort, scene of the contest between the duke of Broglio, and prince Ferdinand

HISTORY.

of Brunswick, 1759; both sides claimed the victory. Again, of the French and Dutch, against the British and Prussians, under the present duke of York, in 1709; the latter defeated.

BERGEN-OP-ZOOM, a fortress in Dutch Brabant, memorable for several sieges, two in 1586 and 1622 by the Spaniards, who were frustrated; and also for a rash assault made upon it by a British force in 1814, which was repulsed with great slaughter.

BERGERAC, a town in Perigord, where, in 1344, the French defeated the English under the earl of Derby.

BERNIS, (Francis-Joachim-Pierre de) was advanced through the marchioness of Pompadour to be ambassador to different courts, minister of foreign affairs, and a cardinal. He was afterwards disgraced and banished from court, but, in 1764, was recalled and nominated archbishop of Albi. He was next appointed ambassador to the pope, and had a considerable share in procuring the destruction of the jesuits. On the revolution he obtained a pension from the court of Spain, and died at Rome in 1794.

BERRY (sir John), an English commander, who distinguished himself at the battle of Southwold-bay, for which he was knighted. He was promoted for saving the duke of York in shipwreck, and was at the demolition of Tangier. In 1691 he was poisoned on board his ship at Portsmouth, aged 56.

BERTHIER, a celebrated French general, and a great favourite of Napoleon, under whom he acted as chief of his staff, and assisted in those great victories which made France master of Italy, Germany, and Prussia. On the return of the Bourbons, he retired into Germany; and, in 1815, was killed by accidentally falling out of a window.

BERWICK, (duke of) natural son of James II. of England, who distinguished himself as a general in the Bourbon cause in Spain, where he won the battle of Almanza, and captured Barcelona, after a resist-

ance, by the citizens, of fifteen months.

BESSUS, a governor of Bactriana, who, after the battle of Arbela, seized Darius his sovereign, and put him to death. He then assumed the title of king, and was some time after brought before Alexander, who gave him to Oxtres, the brother of Darius. That prince ordered his hands and ears to be cut off, and his body to be exposed on a cross, and shot at by the soldiers.

BETIS, governor of Gaza, which he defended with great bravery against Alexander the Great, who, after taking it, basely put him to death, and dragged his corpse at his chariot wheels, B. C. 332.

BEVERNINCK (Jerom van), a Dutch statesman, ambassador to Cromwell, at the treaty of Nimeguen, which produced a general peace. He died in 1690, aged 76.

BIBERACH, in Wirtemberg, the site of a battle in 1706, in which the French, under Moreau, gained a victory over the Austrians under Latour.

BIRAGUE (Rene de), one of the authors of the massacre of St. Bartholomew. He died in 1583, aged 74. He was a time-serving and unprincipled character.

BIRON (Armand de Gontault, baron de), a celebrated French general, who saved several of his friends at the massacre of St. Bartholomew. He was defeated by the duke of Parma, and was slain at the siege of Epernai, in Champagne, in 1592.

BITHYNIA, a country of Asia Minor, formerly called Bebrycia. It was bounded by the Euxine on the north, on the south by Phrygia and Mysia, on the west by the Propontis, and the east by Paphlagonia. In the time of Prusias the first king it was invaded by Croesus, subjugated by the Persians, and taken with their states by Alexander the Great. It afforded an asylum for some time to Hannibal, whom at last they delivered up. The Bithynians assisted the Romans against Peres, king of Macedon, but were subdued by Eumenes king of Perganus, who slew their king. Nicomedes II,

who followed, was assassinated, and Nicomedes IV. bequeathed the kingdom to the Romans.

BITONTO, a town of Spain, celebrated for the defeat of the Imperialists by the Spaniards, in 1734.

BLACKWATER, in Ireland, the scene of the celebrated engagement against the insurgents, in which Tyrone was made prisoner, in 1698.

BLAKE, (Robert) an English admiral, in the time of the commonwealth. He defended Tanton against Goring, blocked up Prince Rupert in Kinsale harbour, pursued him to Lisbon, engaged him at Malaga, and destroyed nearly his whole fleet. He afterwards reduced the Scilly Isles and Guernsey, defeated Van Tromp in two great engagements, demolished the castle of Tunis, and burnt the Spanish fleet in the harbour of Santa Cruz. The terror of his name was so great, that it was used by the Dutch and Spaniards to still their children. He was buried in Westminster, but on the restoration, the body was removed to St. Margaret's church-yard. He died in 1658.

BLACK HOLE, at Calcutta, a small square room, into which 146 British merchants and soldiers were thrust, by orders of Surraja Dowla, when he took Calcutta by surprise, in June 1756. The captives had not room to stand upright till they had taken off their clothes, and had but one small window, from which to get fresh air; in attempting to gain which, they were seized with a frenzy of despair, and trampled each other to death, insomuch that during the night of their confinement, 123 perished out of 146. Surraja Dowla was, in the following year, defeated by Lord Clive at Plassy, and for this and other cruelties beheaded.

BLLENHEIM, a town on the Danube in Germany, celebrated for the important victory obtained there by the Confederates under the duke of Marlborough and Prince Eugene, over the French, commanded by marshals Tallard and Marcin, and the elector of Bavaria. The battle was fought

on Sept. 13, 1704, and is justly considered the most important action of that celebrated war. The confederate force amounted to about 50,000, and the French to 60,000, with great advantage in situation, being possessed of the four neighbouring villages, and having a rivulet in front. This was passed by the allies over bridges, during a brisk fire on both sides. About noon the attack was made by the English on the left, who endeavoured, but in vain, to carry the village of Blenheim, and in their repulse and retreat were so closely pursued, that but for the interposition of a body of Hessians, they would have been cut into pieces. This position was also attempted by another division, but with no better success. In the charge of horse, too, the confederates were thrown into confusion, and compelled to repass the rivulet. They were, however, rallied by the duke of Marlborough, and the second line charged with so much vigour, that the first had leisure to repass the rivulet. The cavalry then advanced leisurely, charged several times, and gained ground in every fresh attack.

The complexion of affairs on the part of the French now becoming serious, marshal Tallard planted eight battalions in the intervals of his squadrons, whose superior fire threw back the confederate horse about sixty paces, and even kept it stationary there. On the renewal, however, of the charge, the French cavalry fled precipitately. Part made for their bridge over the Danube, which was soon broken, and little less than thirty squadrons of horse perished in the river: and out of eight more which were put to the sword, but a few escaped, by falling down among the dead. Marshal Tallard, with many of his principal officers, was taken, and the troops in Blenheim, surrounded and hopeless of assistance, surrendered in the evening, at discretion.

In the meantime, Prince Eugene, on the right, was placed in a difficult situation, having, with only eighteen battalions to oppose an army of thirty, drawn up along

HISTORY.

the hill of Lutzingen, with a battery which commanded all the parts adjacent, and a greatly superior cavalry. Three times the Bavarians withstood the attack of the prince's determined troops, but becoming disheartened by the ill fortune of their right, at length gave way, and a total rout ensued.

The loss of the confederates in this battle was upwards of 11,000, in killed and wounded; 7000, on the part of the English and Dutch; and 4000, on that of the Imperialists. The French and Bavarians lost not fewer than 40,000; the prisoners amounted to 14,000, of whom more than 1200 were officers.

Among other ensigns of victory were 100 pieces of cannon, great and small, 24 mortars, 120 colours, 171 standards, 17 pair of kettledrums, 3000 tents, 34 coaches filled with officers' ladies, 300 mules loaded with rich equipage and plate, the military chest, the chancery, the dispensatory, and 25 brass pontoons, besides a number of carriages, laden with provisions and ammunition.

The fruits of this battle were the reduction of Bavaria, and the evacuation of all the circumjacent places, Augsburg, Memmingen, Ulm, &c. which the enemy possessed.

BLOUNT (Charles,) lord Mountjoy and earl of Devonshire, in the reign of queen Elizabeth, signalized himself by suppressing a rebellion, and bringing with him, in 1603, Tyrone, the rebel leader. He died in 1606.

BLORE HEATH, in Shropshire, where, in 1459, a sanguinary contest took place between the houses of York and Lancaster.

BLUCHER, Marshal, a celebrated Prussian general, who distinguished himself in the wars with France, particularly in 1813, 1814, and 1815, and who, by his timely arrival on the field of Waterloo with a large body of cavalry, achieved the victory.

BOADICEA, or **BONDUCA**, a British heroine, was the wife of Prasutagus, king of the Iceni, who, for the security of his family, made the Roman emperor co-heir with his daughters. The Roman

officers on this took possession of his palace, exposed the princesses to the brutality of the soldiers, and scourged the queen in public. Boadicea, urged to revenge by this usage, assembled her countrymen, and, in a masculine harangue, roused them to madness by describing her own, her daughter's, and country's injuries; stormed Camalodunum (now Colchester,) and put the garrison to the sword. Suetonius Paulinus defeated the Britons, and Boadicea poisoned herself in despair, A.D. 60.

BOCCHUS, king of Mauritania, who leagued with Jugurtha against the Romans. He was defeated by Marius.

BEOTIA, a country of Greece, which now forms a part of Livadia. The inhabitants were reckoned rude and illiterate, sonder of bodily strength than of mental excellence; yet their country produced many illustrious men, as Pindar, Hesiod, Plutarch, &c. It is sometimes called Aonia.

BOGORIS, the first christian king of Bulgaria, converted through his sister, who had been taken by the empress Theodora, but restored.

BOHEMIA, a kingdom of Europe, overrun in early ages by a Scythian tribe, and afterwards tributary to Charlemagne. The first king received his title from the emperor Otho IV. and in 1306, the house of Luxembourg succeeded to the throne. In 1546 Bohemia, by marriage, reverted to the house of Austria, by which it has been since held. Bohemia produced the first reformers, among them were John Huss, and Jerome of Prague.

BOHEMIA, dynasty of.

	DUKES.	A. D.
Czechus, or Zescko . . .		330
Cracus I.		365
Cracus II.		412
Libussa		
Premislaus		632
Nezamistus		676
Wnialaus		680
Cizesomislau		715
Necklan		737
Hostwit, or Milcho . . .		850
Borziwoi I.		850
Stagmir		901

BOHEMIA

Spitzneus I.	902
Wratislaus I.	907
Wenceslaus I.	910
Boleslaus I.	936
Boleslaus II.	967
Boleslaus III.	990
Jaromir	1002
Udalric	1012
Bretislaus I.	1037
Spitzneus II.	1033
Wratislaus II.	1061
Conrad I.	1092
Bretislaus II.	1093
Wladislaus I.	1100
Borzivoi II.	1101
Suatoplu	1107
Borzivoi II. (restored)	1109
Wladislaus II.	1124
Sobieslaus I.	1125
Wladislaus III.	1140
Sobieslaus II.	1174
Frederick	1178
Conrad II.	1190
Wenceslaus II.	1191
Henry Bretislaus	1193
Wladislaus IV.	1196
KINGS.	
Premislaus, or Ottoacre I.	1197
Wenceslaus III.	1230
Premislaus, or Ottoacre II.	1253
Interregnum	1278
Wenceslaus IV.	1284
Wenceslaus V.	1305
Henry of Carinthia	1306
John of Luxemburgh	1310
Charles IV. Emperor of Germany	1346
Wenceslaus VI.	1376
Sigismund	1419
Albert of Austria	1437
Wladislaus V.	1440
George Podiebrad	1458
Wladislaus VI.	1471
Louis	1516
Ferdinand I. of Austria, Emperor	1556

From this time, the crowns of Bohemia and Hungary have remained in the house of Austria; and, by the treaty of Westphalia in 1648, they were declared to be hereditary in that house.

BOHEMOND, the first prince of Antioch, 1098, who defeated the emperor Alexius in two battles. After his father's death, as prince of Tarentum, he distinguished himself in the first crusade, took Antioch, and afterwards Lavdicea, but was himself made prisoner. On gaining his liberty, he returned

to Greece with a large army, but met with little success. He died in 1111.

BOIS-LE-DUC, a Dutch town, near which, in 1794, the British army was defeated by the French, into whose possession it fell.

BOLESLAUS I. king of Poland, who succeeded his father Mieslaus in 900. The emperor Otho III. gave him the title of king, Poland being only a dukedom before Boleslaus conquered Moravia, and made that country tributary. He was a prince of great qualities, and died in 1025.

BOLESLAUS II. succeeded in 1075, and was expelled in 1093.

BOLESLAUS III. one of the most distinguished warriors of his age, who extended his dominions, and in 1138 divided them among his successors into Great Poland, Little Poland, Silesia, and Masovia.

BOLEYN (Anne) wife of Henry VIII. king of England, and mother of queen Elizabeth, was the daughter of sir Thomas Boleyn, and born in 1507. Her early years were spent in attendance on the wife of Lewis XII. on whose death she became maid of honour to queen Catharine. Henry becoming enamoured of her charms, procured a divorce from his wife, and married Anne privately, and when she proved with child, publicly acknowledged her as queen. But the tyrant conceiving a passion for Jane Seymour, he caused her to be tried for high-treason, for alleged unchastity with her brother and four other persons. She suffered with great resolution, May 19, 1536.

BOMBAY, an island and city on the western coast of Hindostan, occupied by the Portuguese in 1530, and ceded to the English in 1661, under whom it has become a strong and flourishing possession.

BONAPARTE, (See Napoleon).

BONIFACE I. pope and saint, succeeded Zozimus in 418, and was maintained in the pontifical chair by the emperor Honorius, against his rival Eulalius. He died in 422.—**BONIFACE II.** succeeded Felix IV. in 530. He was born at Rome, but his father was a Goth.

HISTORY.

He compelled the bishops in a council to allow him to nominate his successor, and accordingly he pitched upon Vigil; but another council disavowed the proceedings of the first. He died in 1532.—

BONIFACE VI. came to the chair on the death of Formosus in 896, but held it only fifteen days; for being elected by a popular faction, he was deposed.—

BONIFACE VII. whose surname was Francon. He assumed the chair after murdering Benedict VI. and John XIV. He was acknowledged sovereign pontiff in 984, and died a few months after. His corpse was exposed in the public streets, and trodden under foot.—

BONIFACE VIII. frightened his predecessor Celestin into a resignation, by denouncing to him, at midnight, eternal damnation if he did not quit the pontifical chair. On this the crafty cardinal was elected, 1294. He commenced his pontificate by imprisoning his predecessor, and laying Denmark under an interdict. He also excommunicated the Colonnas as heretics, and preached a crusade against them. He excited the princes of Germany to revolt against Albert, and laid France under an interdict. Philip appealed to a general council, and sent his army into Italy, which took Boniface prisoner. He died at Rome a few months afterwards.

—**BONIFACE**, count of the Roman empire in the fifth century, defended Africa against the emperor John, and obliged Ataulphus to raise the siege of Marseilles. He revolted in Africa at the instigation of Aetius, who plotted his ruin. Boniface, however, discovered his treachery, and returned to his allegiance and the imperial favour. The armies of Aetius and Boniface had a desperate contest, in which the latter was slain in 432.

BONNEVAL (Claude Alexander de, count), known also by the name of Osman Bashaw, was descended from an illustrious family in France, and married the daughter of the marshal de Biron. He left the French army to serve under prince Eugene; but, on a quarrel with that general, he entered into the service of the Turks,

among whom he obtained a military command, with the rank of bashaw. He won a great victory over the imperial army on the banks of the Danube. Died 1747.

BORGIA (Cæsar), son of pope Alexander VI. two of the most infamous characters of history. On his father's accession Cæsar was made archbishop of Valenza, and cardinal; but, being jealous that his brother Francis was more in favour, he contrived to have him drowned. He also dispatched a number of other persons to gratify his avarice and revenge. Having renounced the cardinalship, he was made a duke by Lewis XII. of France, with whom he entered into a league for the conquest of the Milanese. On the death of his father he was sent prisoner to Spain, but made his escape, and died fighting under the walls of Viana, in 1507.

BORYSTHENES, a large river of Scythia, falling into the Euxine sea, now called the Dnieper.

BOSCAWEN (Edward,) an English admiral. He particularly distinguished himself at the taking of Porto Bello, and the siege of Carthagenæ. He also signalized himself under Anson, off Cape Finisterre; in the taking of Madras, Cape Breton, and Louisburg. He died in 1761, having successively received all the honours of his profession.

BOSNIA, the ancient Panonia, conquered by Mahomet II. in 1463, who caused its last king Stephen V. to be flayed alive. It has since remained part of the Turkish dominions.

BOSTON, in America, near which the royalists triumphed over the republicans, in 1775.

BOSWORTH, in Leicestershire, near which was fought the celebrated and important battle betwixt Richard III. and the earl of Richmond, afterwards Henry VII. the issue of which left the latter undisputed possessor of the throne of England. To support his claim, Richmond had but 6,000 men, and the usurper had double that number; 7,000 were commanded by Lord Stanley, whose obedience he knew he could command only

by holding his son as hostage for his fidelity. The van of Richmond's army consisted of archers, commanded by the earl of Oxford.—Sir Gilbert Talbot led the right, Sir John Savage the left wing, and the earl himself, with his uncle Pembroke, the main body. Richard similarly disposed himself, and gave the van to his steadfast friend the duke of Norfolk; his wings were not engaged, and the names of their commanders are unknown. Almost at the commencement of the engagement Stanley fulfilled his fears, and went over to Richmond. This defection naturally threw a great damp over the troops of Richard, while it inspired a proportionate degree of confidence into those of his rival. Richard, however, sensible how much in these circumstances depended upon his personal valour, and the safety or destruction of his rival, singled him out, and driving furiously towards him, killed, with his own hands, Sir William Brandon, the earl's standard-bearer, unhorsed Sir John Cheyney, and was actually within reach of Richmond, who also prepared himself for the rencontre, when Stanley's horse breaking in at the moment, surrounded him, and he fell dead upon the field. His army immediately took flight. There fell in the engagement about 4,000 of the vanquished, and amongst them the duke of Norfolk, and several other persons of high rank. The victory was entirely decisive, and the earl was immediately saluted with acclamations of "long live Henry VII."

BOSPHORUS, an ancient kingdom, lying between the Euxine sea and the Palus Mæotis in Asia. It passed from its kings to the Romans, from them to the Scythians and Sarmatians, then to the Genoese, then to the Tartars and Turks, and, finally, to the Russians, who retain it.

BOTHWELL (James Hepburn, earl of), remarkable in the history of Scotland for his connexion with queen Mary, and his supposed share, at least, in the murder of Henry Darnley, her husband. When that unfortunate prince was

blown up in Holyrood house, where he slept, suspicion fell strongly on Bothwell and the queen. Bothwell was tried, but nothing could be fixed upon him, and he was acquitted. After this he seized Mary near Edinburgh, and carried her prisoner to Dunbar castle, where they married. During these iniquitous proceedings, Bothwell procured a divorce between him and his wife. Mary soon after created him earl of Orkney. But a confederacy among the lords being formed against him, he retired to the Orkneys, and from thence to Denmark, where he died in 1577, confessing his own guilt, and the queen's innocence of the king's murder.

BOUCICANT, or John la Meingle, marshal of France, and viscount Turenne, became a soldier at the age of ten years. He was in numerous battles in Italy and Turkey, in which he distinguished himself by his valour. In 1415 he was taken prisoner at the battle of Agincourt, and carried to England, where he died, in 1421.

BOUFFLERS (Lewis Francis de), marshal of France, was born in 1644, and entered early into the army. In 1669 he became colonel of a regiment of dragoons, and distinguished himself in several actions. In 1706 he defended Lisle against prince Eugene; and, at the battle of Malplaquet, effected his retreat without losing any of his artillery or soldiers. He died in 1711.

BOUILLE (M. le marquis de), a French loyalist general, who, among other services, suppressed a dangerous insurrection at Metz, and assisted the king to escape from France. For his avowal of this transaction, a price was set upon his head, whereupon he took a commission in the Swedish service, but quitted it to act under prince Conde. He died at London, in 1800.

BOURBON, the royal house of the kings of France, who obtained the throne in the person of Henry IV. in 1590. The kings of this house were Henry IV. Louis XIII. XIV. XV. XVI. XVII. with XVIII. the reigning monarch, in

HISTORY.

1629. The Bourbon family obtained the kingdom of Spain, in the person of Philip V. (of Anjou,) and maintained themselves in possession, after a long and bloody war, called the Spanish succession. Another branch of the same family is on the throne of Naples.

BOURBON (Charles duke of), constable of France, distinguished himself at Marignano, but soon after fell into disgrace. On this he associated with Charles V. and the king of England against his sovereign. The plot being discovered, he fled into Italy, and became commander-in-chief to the emperor. He was killed in an assault on Rome, in 1527.

BOURDONNAYE (Bernard Francis Mahé de la), born at St. Malo in 1690, a merchant and a warrior. In 1746 he took Madras from the English, and in consideration of a large ransom saved the place from pillage. He died of chagrin, arising from the ingratitude of his country, in 1754.

BOYLE (Roger), earl of Orrery, was born in Ireland in 1621. His political designs were at first in favour of Charles, but they were frustrated by the vigilance of the popular party, and changed by the policy of Cromwell, whom he followed as his officer to Ireland, and became of his privy-council. On his death, Boyle took measures in favour of the restoration, and was in return created by Charles II. earl Orrery, a privy-counsellor, a lord-justice of Ireland, and a commissioner of parliament. He died in 1706.

BOYNE, battle of the, was fought on the 1st of July, 1690, between William III. at the head of a protestant army, and James II. at the head of a Catholic and French army. The latter were totally defeated, but marshal Schomberg was killed. After this battle, James embarked for France, and William completed the reduction of Ireland, by the capture of Limerick, after a protracted siege.

BRADDOCK, an English general, who, in 1755, was surprised by a party of Indians in the woods near Fort De Queneo, on the

Ohio; himself was killed, and his troops defeated.

BRAGANZA, royal house of, kings of Portugal, of whom the first was John IV. who conspired; as duke of Braganza, with the Portuguese people, in rendering themselves independent of Spain, in 1640.

BRANDENBURGH, the margraves of which raised themselves to be kings of Prussia. It passed into various hands, till the elector Frederick William enlarged it by the annexation of several towns and districts, and among others, the duchy of Prussia, and of the whole territory. His son Frederick I. was crowned king of Prussia in 1701.

BRANDON (Charles), duke of Suffolk, celebrated, first, for his uninterrupted favour with Henry VIII.; secondly, for his eminence in those bloodless "feats of arms," which formed one great characteristic of that monarch's reign; and thirdly, for his success in having, at a tilting-match, won the heart of the beautiful Mary, sister to Henry, and then queen of France. The lady, it is said, upon the death of her husband, Louis XI. made the proposals, and Henry allowed the match. He died in 1545, and was buried by Henry with great magnificence.

BRANDYWINE CREEK, the scene of a victory of the British over the Americans in September, 1777.

BRASIDAS, a Lacedemonian general, who, about 424 B. C., defeated the Athenians, took from them several cities, and engaged others in an alliance with Sparta. He died of a wound obtained in the moment of victory.

BRAZIL, an extensive Portuguese colony, accidentally discovered by Pedro Alvarez Cabral, and settled in 1549. Between 1624 and 1635 the Dutch made several attacks upon its ports, and partly succeeded. In 1806 the court of Portugal removed here, and in 1821, the king returned to Lisbon, since which, in 1822, the prince-royal has co-operated with the wishes of the inhabitants, and

Brazil has been declared an independent kingdom under his authority.

BRÉDER, a fortress in Dutch Brabant, which has stood several memorable sieges. In 1690 it was taken by prince Maurice, but retaken by the Spaniards in 1693, under Spinola, after six months siege, but was taken again in 1697. In 1698 treaties were formed here between several principal powers of Europe.

BRENNEVILLE, in France, where Louis le Gros sustained a defeat by the English, under Henry I., in 1119.

BRENNUS, general of the Gauls, who, at the head of a prodigious army, penetrated into Macedonia, slew Sosthenes, general of that country, ravaged Thessaly, and Greece, and advanced towards the temple of Delphos, with an intention to plunder it; but he was repulsed, on which he slew himself, B. C. 278.

BRENNUS, another general of the Gauls, who, after ravaging Lombardy and Tuscany, marched to Rome, which he gave up to be pillaged and burnt. Sulpitius offered him a thousand pounds weight of gold to spare the capital, and quit the territories of the republic. Brennus threw into the scale which held the weights his sword and helmet, haughtily exclaiming 'Woe to the vanquished!' Camillus put an end to the treaty, gave battle to the Gauls, and constrained them to fly; about 388 B. C.

BREßLAU, noted for the defeat of the Prussians by the Austrians, 1757.

BREST, a French sea-port, attacked, in 1694, by a British fleet and army, which was repulsed, with a loss of 1800 men, and Tullmache, their commander.

BRETON, Cape, famous for its capture by the New England militia, in 1745; and for the siege and capture of its chief town, Louisburg, in 1758.

BRIENNE (Walter de), an illustrious Frenchman, who signalized himself in the defence of Acre against the Saracens in 1108. He afterwards became king of Sicily and duke of Pouille, by his marriage with Maria Alberic, and died

of a wound in 1185.—Walter the Great, his son, was count of Brienne and of Jaffa; he went to the holy land, where he distinguished himself, but was taken prisoner, and put to a cruel death in 1261.

BRIENNE (John de), elected king of Jerusalem in 1210. Being himself obliged to relinquish it, he gave it with his daughter to Frederick II. the emperor. He was afterwards unexpectedly elected emperor of Constantinople, which he defended with great bravery against the Greeks and Bulgarians, and died in 1237.

BRISBOT (John Peter), a leading character in the French revolution, but known principally for his writings, which tended greatly to bring monarchical power into discredit. After numerous changes of action and residence, which the nature of his works, and the fluctuating state of his popularity rendered necessary, having been engaged some time in England, some time with the duke of Orleans, and some time in America, he was at last guillotined with his friends, by the cruel faction in power in 1793.

BRITAIN was little known till it was first invaded by Julius Cæsar. He conducted his army into this unknown country, on the pretext of revenging the aid which the Britons had given the Gauls in the year 55 before Christ. The Romans kept possession of it 500 years, during which many improvements were introduced, and the manners of the people became assimilated to those of their conquerors. This, however, was not effected without much contest. The Romans having, in the fourth century, nearly quitted Britain, to defend their own states, invaded by the Goths and Vandals, the Britons were attacked by the Scots, and sought the assistance of the Angli, a people of Saxony. These defeated the Scots, but made themselves masters also of the kingdom; and from them it obtained the name of Anglia, or England. England was divided, by the Saxons, into seven distinct kingdoms, called the Saxon Heptarchy. It commenced in the sixth century, and continued till 800, when Egbert reigned alone.

HISTORY.

The states were always subject to one monarch, called the king of Britain. The kingdom of Kent contained only that county: it began in 455, and ended in 827.—The South Saxons, contained Sussex and Surrey; began 491, ended about 600.—The West Saxons, contained Cornwall, Devonshire, Dorsetshire, Wiltshire, Hampshire, and Berkshire, began 519, ended 1066.—The East Saxons, contained Essex, Middlesex, and part of Hertfordshire; began 527, ended 747.—Northumberland, contained Lancashire, Yorkshire, Durham, Cumberland, Northumberland, and part of Scotland, as far as Edinburgh Frith; began 547, ended about 792.—East Anglia, contained Norfolk, Suffolk, and Cambridgeshire; began 575, ended 973.—Mercia, or the middle kingdom, contained Gloucestershire, Herefordshire, Worcestershire, Warwickshire, Leicestershire, Rutlandshire, Northamptonshire, Lincolnshire, Huntingdonshire, Bedfordshire, Buckinghamshire, Oxfordshire, Staffordshire, Shropshire, Nottinghamshire, Cheshire, and part of Hertfordshire; began 582, ended 927.—These several kingdoms, at the dates specified, merged into those of their more powerful neighbours.

England, from 653, suffered many invasions by the Danes, who several times made themselves masters of it; they were finally expelled, (1041) and the Saxon government restored in Edward the Confessor. It was during this time flourished Canute, Harold, and Hardicanute. In 1066 the Normans, under William the Conqueror, obtained possession of the kingdom, having defeated the English under Harold, in the battle of Hastings. By this circumstance, the whole moral and political constitution of England underwent an important change. The Norman principle of lordship and vassalage was introduced and enforced, and it was not till after some generations that the barons themselves, feeling the chain of passive submission too galling, gave the first impulse to that spirit of liberty which burnt the fetters of

feudalism, and led in the result to that freedom which has so long happily characterized this country. To the time of king John, the history of England is little else than an account of the acts of the kings, done with a direct view to acquire and to sustain this unnatural authority. The first William did almost nothing else. His brother perished in hunting in the New Forest, which his father had depopulated for that amusement. Henry relaxed a little, as well as Stephen, to support his usurpation. Henry II. employed it advantageously in his conquest of Ireland, and in the reign of the former prince it was grown so exorbitant, that it was wrenched from him. It is here that the best part of English history begins. King John, after many feeble attempts at continued despotism, was compelled by the exasperated barons to sign what was afterwards called Magna Charta. He, however, involved his nation with himself in disgraceful submissions to the pope, the influence of which it cost her and her succeeding kings many struggles to counteract. Civil liberty increased, at least, under his successor, a weak and contemptible prince, and the first frame of a house of commons may be traced to this reign. We may hence consider England in her political relations. By the military ardour of Robert, duke of Normandy, the crown had been given up to the second brother, in purchase for money advanced on his expedition to Palestine, and on his attempt to recover it in the succeeding reign, he was taken and confined the remainder of his life in the castle of Cardiff. With this exception, the history of England presents little of importance in connexion with its foreign policy, till Henry II. provoked a war with Scotland, in which their king, William, was taken prisoner, and only re-obtained his crown by doing homage for it as a vassal. This reign was also distinguished by two great acquisitions of territory, Ireland by arbitrary conquest, and Guienne and Poitou by marriage. During this period, however, the power of

the church of Rome had increased beyond the acquisition of the crown; Thomas à Becket, archbishop of Canterbury, evincing its arrogance and determination to dictate in matters temporal as well as spiritual; and some of the finest counties of England, in the north, were actually held by the Scotch by the empty ceremony of vassalage. By the treachery of John, Normandy was lost to the English crown, the pope was constituted the virtual lord of his dominions, and Lewis, prince of France, was actually encouraged to assume the title. Henry III.'s reign was occupied in disputes with his barons, and extortions from the Jews. The dependency of Scotland was confirmed by the violent imposition of Baliol upon the throne; his subsequent confinement; the actual *pro tempore* possession of that country by Edward I.; and the decided overthrow of the Scotch forces that opposed him. In the weakness of the next reign, all was, however, recovered by Robert Bruce. Edward III., by his successes at Cressy and Poitiers, and that of Durham, obtained for England much glory, much expense, and two royal captives; but very little solid advantage: while the campaign in Spain occasioned the death of the Black Prince, and, ultimately, that of his father, who died in 1377. The progress of liberty and its consequences was by this time very perceptible, and is the best means of accounting for those triumphs obtained generally over feudal slaves, who, having no property to defend, could have little interest in the cause for which they were dragged into the field. And in this reign, and on one private individual, we are to fix the first ray of the reformation. Wickliff, under the protection of John of Gaunt, the king's brother, began those impugnments of the papal abuses which, in the end, overthrew that corrupt and foreign dominion in this country. It was during the absence of Richard, in quelling a disturbance in Ireland, that the people, vexed with continual exactions, and offended at the injustice

of the king to his cousin the duke of Lancaster, invited the latter from banishment, to control the operations of the king and his advisers. He landed; usurped the crown, murdered the king, quelled the insurrections consequent, and captured the heir to the Scottish throne. The feats of his successor, in achieving the crown of France, and the reverses of his son, who lost it, form the principal features of their respective reigns; except that to the latter are to be added, the civil contentions with the deposed line for the re-possession of the throne, their success, and the old king's murder. Edward IV. did little more than get possession, being almost succeeded by his most violent enemy, Henry VII. of the other line, who, by marrying his daughter, united the two houses. Henry VIII., though perhaps the greatest tyrant who ever filled the English throne, gave a new era to this country, in its total emancipation from papal authority. The power, however, of which he had deprived the pope he seized for himself, and was, at least, as vigorous in its execution. But the advantage with regard to the people, was that his assumption of it was personal, depending on his own absolute will, which could not descend to his successor. The next reign ratified and enlarged his acts in favour of protestantism; and, though Mary, for a time, re-bounded the chains, and rekindled the fires of persecution, the reformation was too firmly established to be overthrown; and her successor, Elizabeth, "of glorious and happy memory," settled it upon a foundation, which will endure as long as the convictions of its necessity and superiority of its tenets exist.

During all this time, from the death of Edward III. the foreign relations of England, though continually fluctuating, were not considerably changed. Henry VIII. in league with the pope and the emperor, made some conquests in France, and his generals defeated and slew James IV. of Scotland at Flodden-field; and in his successor's reign, an expedition into that

country was executed, at the desire of the late king, on a fruitless attempt to oblige the Scots to give up Mary the princess to match with Edward V. In the reign of Mary, Calais was lost by treachery. Elizabeth intrigued with Scotland, but fought with Spain. Her defence of her kingdom against the celebrated Armada in 1588, would of itself stamp her reign with glory; her attack on Cadiz, by the earl of Essex, was eminently successful, and the other fruits of enterprise in her admirals were very considerable. She also supported the Protestants of Germany against Austria, and the Dutch against the Spaniards. On Elizabeth's death, the English and Scottish crowns became united in the person of James I. a vain and pedantic prince. But, under his son and successor Charles I. by his imprudence, and the extravagant demands of the people, royalty itself was destroyed, the king brought to the scaffold in 1649, and a republican form of government established under a protector. During this period, however, England maintained a high rank in the scale of nations, and Cromwell shewed himself equal to maintain as well as to acquire dominion. The usurpation was perhaps a harsh medicine to the constitution, but its operation was short, and its effects even salutary. The legitimate monarch was restored in 1660, and though the violence of the revolution may be said to have reacted barbarously during the reigns of Charles II. and James II., the rational and just principles of liberty were more firmly settled; so that when the latter monarch attempted to rule absolutely, and to overthrow the religion of the country, a bloodless revolution forced him to abdicate the throne, and set upon it his son-in-law William, an avowed Protestant. The liberties of the people took deeper root by his confirmation of their bill of rights, and this may be called the climax of English liberty, the very true mean between despotism and democracy, betwixt the rigour of the crown and the

licentiousness of ignorant demagogues. In this reign, an expedition headed by the king was sent out to reduce Ireland, and a war with France, not generally successful, but in which there appeared some brilliant sparks of enterprise, and one or two fair incidents of good fortune. It was in the reign of his successor, Anne, that the ages of English chivalry seemed to revive, and the military mania of the two rival nations to be renewed. The valour and skill of Marlborough triumphed over the most splendid arrays of military might, under Louis XIV. Germany was saved, and Gibraltar taken, and Dunkirk was ceded, in a course of victories which rival the proudest annals of the historic page. It was also in this memorable reign, that the union of Scotland with this country took place.—The succession of the house of Hanover now took place. The short reign of George the first was principally noted for its domestic and foreign iniquitude, without any considerable direct influence upon its polity. George II.'s by the tactics of Sir Robert Walpole, the battle of Dettingen fought by the king in person, the defeat of the Pretender, the neutral military contests with France, the naval triumphs over that kingdom and Spain, the amazing acquisitions in India, the capture of Goree in Africa, and the entire conquest of French America, a reign consequently that wants nothing in either glory or usefulness to equal it with the preceding. The memorabilia of the last reign necessarily increase in number, as by their proximity they advanced in interest. The most important feature of this reign is unhappily the most disastrous—the loss of America, by attempts repeated and resisted of taxing the articles of internal consumption. After a struggle of eight years, in which vast treasures, and numerous armies and fleets were for ever lost to this country, Great Britain was obliged to acknowledge her independence in 1783. From this fatal quarrel also flowed others of serious magnitude. The peace of

Europe, which had been settled at Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748, was now broken up by the different powers siding with the resisters, and thus England was at once involved in war with France, Spain, and Holland, while the dissensions of party at home increased to an alarming height. All was, however, concluded with the original cause, by a treaty with those powers in 1763. The war, with respect to those powers, had been of various success, but generally honourable to the British arms; yet, such was the eagerness of the nation to get rid of it, that the treaty sacrificed several of our previously obtained West India possessions. The war of the French revolution forms actually a second period of this reign. The first direct influence on the part of the British, was in two unsuccessful expeditions under the duke of York and Sir S. Hood, and in the capture of some French West India Islands, and of Pondicherry in India. In the latter province, very great advantages were acquired against the natives; Tipoo Sultan was entirely defeated and killed, and Seringapatam captured. France, having disposed of her continental enemies, began to act on the offensive, and all but effected an invasion of Ireland, seven ships of the line having with that intent anchored in Bantry-Bay. The war in the mean time had divided the sentiments of the people, and strong dissatisfaction was manifested by the revolution party. The ministers were firm in their measures, and the king's life was put in danger on his going to Parliament. Two attempts at negotiation failed, and the difficulties at home were increased by the stoppage of the bank, the mutiny of the fleet, and the menace of rebellion in Ireland. The first evil was palliated, but the two latter were not suppressed without much execution and bloodshed. The intentions of the French were, however, defeated; 1800 men who had landed in Ireland surrendered, and the fleet recovered its reputation by a victory over the Spaniards, and by the cele-

brated one at the Nile, in 1798. These events having raised the spirits of the continental powers, Austria, Russia, and Turkey joined England against France, while Ireland was pacified by a show of much promise, which was to be effected by a union with this country. The allies were defeated at Marengo with immense slaughter, and the English, at the request of the grand seignor, agreed to evacuate Egypt, and made an unsuccessful attempt on the Boulogne flotilla. Such was the state of things, when, in 1801, both countries found it convenient to make peace. Great Britain gained, as a remuneration for her enormous expences, the islands of Ceylon and Trinidad.

The war recommenced in 1803, by the loss on the English side of Hanover, and the seizure of all the British in France; and, by the British, with the seizure of French vessels and seamen: and, to oppose the increasing power of the new French emperor, Mr. Pitt was again chosen minister. In the mean time, the most advantageous treaties had been concluded with the native states of India; and the French, defeated by Lord Nelson, in a great and decisive naval engagement at Trafalgar, in 1805. His lordship, who fell in the engagement, was honoured with a magnificent public funeral. This was the last trophy of those great preparations which Mr. Pitt had made, to support his determined system for the overthrow of that of the French, an object which, in the sequel, it certainly accomplished, whatever mischievous consequences it may have introduced.—He died in 1806, and Mr. Fox, his great political opponent and successor, in the same year. During this period the successes in other parts had been partial; but, at home, a triumph over injustice and inhumanity was obtained in the abolition of the slave-trade. The new ministry, persisting in pressing the catholic claims, received his majesty's intimation to resign. It was at this juncture, in 1808, that Britain made herself a party to reinstate the imbecile

HISTORY.

Bourbon of Spain: the facts that followed are scarcely out of memory. The campaign was began by Sir Arthur Wellesley, (now duke of Wellington,) by the repulse of Junot at Vimiera; but the defeat and death of Sir John Moore at Corunna followed. And though the English under Sir Arthur Wellesley were still in force in Portugal, and had obtained some advantages, they had to contend equally with the weakness of the Spaniards and the power of the French. They intrenched themselves therefore behind the lines of Torres Vedras. Two expeditions, of different fortune, took place at this time; the one to the south of Italy, and the other unhappily to the island of Walcheren. Several valuable captures in other parts were made. At this period, 1810, appeared the unhappy malady of the late king's mind, which was never removed. His son was constituted regent. The war in Spain was still carried on with determination, but with partial success. The re-organization, however, of the Spanish and Portuguese armies, and the reviving spirit of the Cortes, changed the complexion of affairs. The French gained almost their last victory over Ballasteros, and suffered in return a defeat at Salamanca, and were compelled to abandon the siege of Cadiz. During this time, India continued to increase her victories and territories, and Russia, Prussia, and Sweden, had entered into alliance with England, who supplied them with vast subsidies to support their armies. Holland also, by the assistance of England, had risen upon its masters, and Napoleon, pressed by the allies, and having lost his immense armies in Russia, was obliged to give way, and his enemies entered France on two sides. Lord Wellington also proceeded through Spain, passed the Pyrennees, through almost unremitted conflict, invested Bayonne, occupied Bordeaux, defeated Soult before Toulouse, and there received the news of the capture of Paris, and the cessation of hostilities. In the detail of such important events, the war with America

has been passed over. It was prosecuted on the plea of our assumed right of searching American vessels for deserters. The success was various. Several of our frigates were taken, by the advantage of superiorly-constructed vessels; and we, on our side, made temporary captures of many of their possessions on land, including the city of Washington; but they had the advantage on the lakes. Peace was, in 1814, signed at Ghent. The next year, Britain was again called into active co-operation with the other confederates, to depose Napoleon, who had returned in triumph from Elba, and without opposition re-assumed the throne of France. The combined army, under the command of the English general, met the French, and after a severe successful battle, entered Paris, and reinstated Louis XVIII. on the throne, while Napoleon surrendered himself to an English ship, and was sent to St. Helena, and there detained till his death in 1820. The accession of George IV. on January 29, 1820; the trial and death of queen Caroline, and the disturbances at her funeral; the scarcity and distress in Ireland and England, are circumstances of equal interest and notoriety: and as the most striking facts of history are seldom the most useful or dignifying, we may hope that the increasing inquiries and intelligence of the people, and the internal prosperity of Britain will preserve her from adding much to the roll of questionable fame, or the records of mis-called military glory.

BRITAIN, Dynasty of.

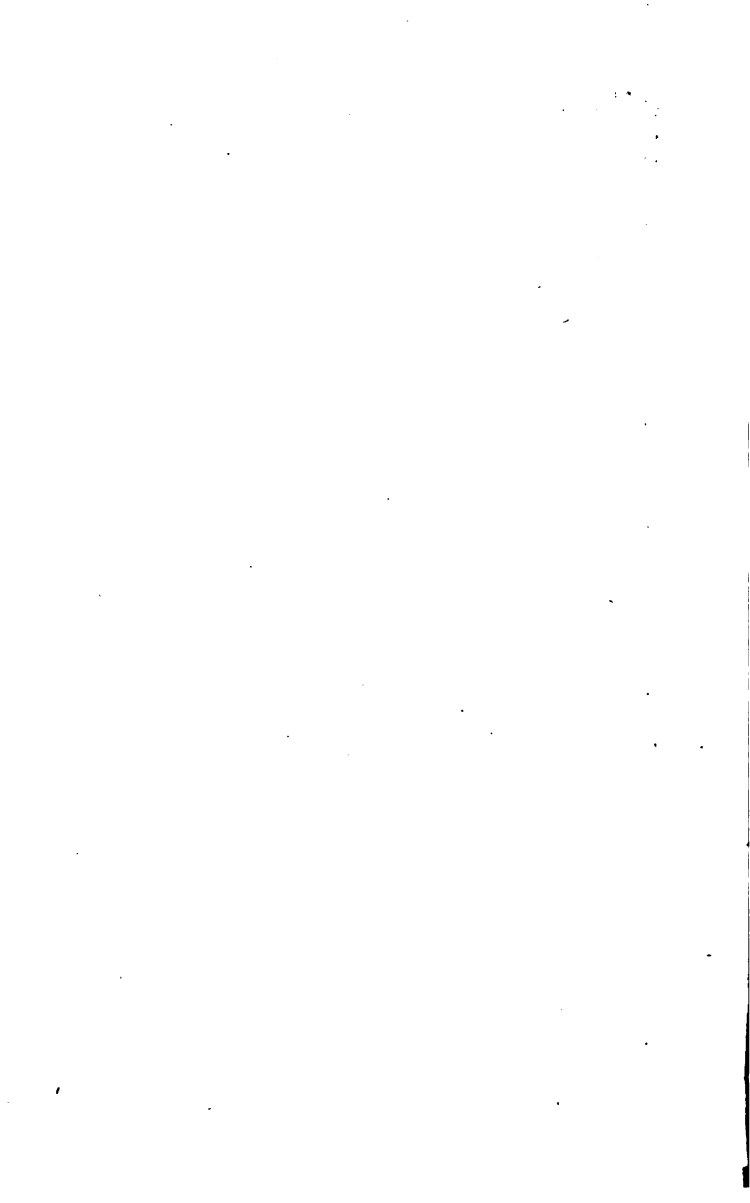
The following is the succession of sovereigns under the Heptarchy and United Kingdom.

The kingdom of KENT contained only the county of Kent; its kings were,

1 Hengist began	A. D. 454
2 Eske	486
3 Octa	512
4 Ymbrick	534
5 Ethelbert	568
6 Edbald	616
7 Ercombert	640
8 Egbert	664
9 Lothaire	678



Pub. Jno. & Abby Sir R. Phillips, & Co. Drick C. Bridge St. Blackfriars



BRI—BRI

10 Eadric	A. D. 684
11 Withred	685
12 { Eadbert and } { Edelbert }	725
13 Ethelbert alone	743
14 Aldric	700
15 Ethelbert Pren	704
16 Cudred	709
17 Baldred	805

It ended in 823, and its first Christian king was Ethelbert.

The kingdom of SOUTH SAXONS contained the counties of Sussex and Surrey: its kings were,

1 Ella began	491
2 Cissa	514
3 Chevelin	590
4 Ceolwic	592
5 Ceoluph	597
6 { Cinigil } { Quicelm }	611
7 Canowalch	643
8 Adelwach	648

It ended in 685, and its first Christian king was Adelwach.

The kingdom of EAST SAXONS contained the counties of Essex and Middlesex; its kings were,

1 Erchenwin began	527
2 Sledra	587
3 Sebert	598
4 { Sexred } { Seward }	616
5 Sigebert the Little	623
6 Sigebert the Good	653
7 Withelme	655
8 Sighere and Sebbi	665
9 Sebbi	683
10 { Sigherd and } { Seofrid }	594
11 Offa	700
12 Ceolfred	709
13 Snithred	740
14 Sigered	799

It ended in 827, and its first Christian king was Serbert.

The kingdom of NORTHUMBRIA contained Yorkshire, Durham, Lancashire, Westmoreland, Cumberland, & Northumberland: its kings were,

1 Ella, or Ida, began	547
2 Adda	559
3 Clappa	566
4 Theodwald	572
5 Fridulph	573
6 Theodorick	579
7 Athelrick	586
8 Athelfrid	593
9 Edwin	617

57

10 Oeric	A. D. 633
11 Oswald	634
12 Oswy	643
13 Ethelward	653
14 Eafred	679
15 Alkfryd	685
16 Osred I.	705
17 Cenred	716
18 Osrick	718
19 Ceolulph	730
20 Egbert	737
21 Oswulph	758
22 Edilwald	759
23 Alured	765
24 Etheldred	774
25 Alswald I.	776
26 Osred II.	780
27 Etheldred restored	780
28 Osbald	796
29 Ardulph	797
30 Alfwald II.	807
31 Andred	810

It ended in 827, and its first Christian king was Edwin.

The kingdom of MERCA contained the counties of Huntingdon, Rutland, Lincoln, Northampton, Leicester, Derby, Nottingham, Oxford, Chester, Salop, Gloucester, Worcester, Stafford, Warwick, Buckingham, Bedford, and Hertford. Its kings were,

1 Creda began	583
2 Wibba	595
3 Cheorlas	616
4 Penda	625
5 Penda	656
6 Wolf here	659
7 Ethelred	675
8 Kenred	704
9 Ceolred	709
10 Ethelbald	716
11 Offa	737
12 Egfrid	794
13 Cenolf	795
14 Kenelme	819
15 Ceolwolf	819
16 Barnulf	821
17 Ludecan	823
18 Whiglafe	825

It ended in 827, and its first Christian king was Penda.

The kingdom of EAST ANGLS contained the counties of Suffolk, Norfolk, Cambridge, and the isle of Ely: its kings were,

1 Uffa began	575
2 Titillus	578
3 Redwald	599
4 Erpenwald	624
5 Sigebert	636

HISTORY.

			SINCE THE CONQUEST. A. D.	
6 { Egrik }	A. D. 844		William the Conqueror	1066
7 { Annas }			William Rufus	1087
8 Ethelhere . . .	854		Henry I.	1100
9 Adwulf . . .	856		Stephen . . .	1135
10 Alswald . . .	863		Henry II.	1154
11 { Beorna and }	749		Richard I.	1189
12 { Ethelbert }			John . . .	1190
13 Beorna alone . . .	756		Henry III.	1216
14 Ethelred . . .	761		Edward I.	1272
15 Ethelbert . . .	790		Edward II.	1307
It ended 792, and its first Christian king was Redwald.			Edward III.	1327
The kingdom of WEST SAXONS contained the counties of Cornwall, Devon, Dorset, Somerset, Wilts, Hants, and Berks: its kings were,			Richard II.	1377
1 Cherdic began . . .	519		Henry IV.	1399
2 Kenrick . . .	534		Henry V.	1413
3 Chevlene . . .	560		Henry VI.	1422
4 Ceolric . . .	592		Edward IV.	1461
5 Ceoluph . . .	596		Edward V.	1483
6 { Kingills }			Richard III.	1483
7 { Quinthelin }	611		Henry VII.	1485
8 Ceonowalch . . .	643		Henry VIII.	1509
9 Adelwalch . . .	648		Edward VI.	1547
10 Sexburga . . .	672		Mary I.	1553
11 { Censua, Esewin, }			Elizabeth	1558
12 { and Centwin }	674		James I.	1603
13 Ceadwald . . .	686		Charles I.	1625
14 Ina . . .	686		Charles II.	1649
15 Adelard . . .	726		James II.	1685
16 Cadred . . .	740		Mary II.	1689
17 { Sigebert and }			William III.	1689
18 { Cenulf }	754		Anne . . .	1702
19 Brithrick . . .	784		George I.	1714
20 Egbert . . .	800		George II.	1727
It ended in 828, and its first Christian king was Kingills.			George III.	1760
THE HEPTARCHY UNITED.			George IV.	1820
Egbert . . .	827		BRITANNICUS, son of the emperor Claudius and Messalina. He was excluded from the empire by the artifices of Agrippina, second wife of Claudius, and mother of Nero, who caused Britannicus to be poisoned, A. D. 55.	
Ethelwolf . . .	837		BROGLIO (Victor Maurice, count de), a French general, who served with glory in the wars of Louis XIV. and was made a marshal of France in 1734. He died in 1727, aged about eighty.	
Ethelbald . . .	857		BROGLIO (Francis-Marie), marshal of France, who distinguished himself greatly in Italy in the campaigns of 1773 and 1734. He died in 1745.	
Ethelbert II. . .	863		BROGLIO, (the celebrated marshal de), who commanded with great glory in the seven-years' war. He quitted France in 1794, and after residing in England some time, went to Russia, where he obtained a military rank equal to that which he had held in France.	
Ethelred . . .	866			
Alfred . . .	873			
Edward the Elder . . .	901			
Athelstan . . .	929			
Edmund . . .	940			
Edred . . .	947			
Edwy . . .	955			
Edgar . . .	972			
Edward the Martyr . . .	975			
Ethelred II. . .	979			
Sweyn . . .	1013			
Canute . . .	1014			
Edmund Ironside . . .	1016			
Harold . . .	1036			
Hardicanute . . .	1041			
Edward the Confessor . . .	1042			
Harold II. . .	1066			

BROGLIO (Claude Victor, prince of), who became active on the side of the popular party at the commencement of the revolution, and was made marshal de camp. He was guillotined in 1794, at the age of thirty-seven.

BROWNE (Ulysses Maximilian de), a general of the empire, who signalized himself in many engagements between 1715 and 1757, among which he achieved the victory of Placentia in 1746, and the capture and retreat of Genoa. For these and subsequent services against the king of Prussia, he was loaded with honours. He died of his wounds received at the battle of Potshenitz in 1757.

BRUNEHAUD, or **BRUNECHILDE**, the daughter of Athanagild, king of the Visigoths in Spain, and the wife of Sigebert I. king of Austrasia, during whose life she bore an excellent character. She assumed the regency during the minority of her son Childebert, and, upon the death of his successor Theodebert, to preserve it, she is charged with committing great cruelties, for which she was banished. She retired to the court of her grandson Thierry, king of Burgundy, whom she persuaded to take Paris from Clotaire. She is said to have poisoned Thierry, soon after which she was betrayed into the hands of Clotaire, by whose orders she was tied to the tail of a wild horse, which dragged her about till her brains were beaten out, A. D. 614.

BRUNNO, in Italy, celebrated for a defeat of the imperialists by the French, 1702.

BRUNSWICK, the royal house of, traces its origin to Azoe, marquis of Este, in 944, though the German founder was Guelph, duke of Havaria. In the sixteenth century its territory was divided between the two sons of duke Ernest, under the names of Wolfenbattel and Laneburg, from the latter the house of Hanover, (kings of England,) is descended.

BRUTUS (Lucius Junius), a celebrated Roman. He was the son of Marcus Junius, by a daughter of Tarquin the elder. When his father and brothers were beheaded

by Tarquin, Brutus pretended to be an idiot, which saved his life. He continued this appearance till the death of Lucretia afforded him an opportunity of rousing the Roman people to action, and of shewing the energy of his mind. By his exertion the Tarquins were expelled, and the monarchy gave way to a republic. The consulship was then instituted, when Brutus and Collatinus, the husband of Lucretia, were chosen the first to hold that dignity. The same year he was slain at the head of his troops, fighting against one of the sons of Tarquin, who also fell upon the field. This happened B. C. 509.

BRUTUS, (Marcus Junius), lineally descended from the above, whose republican principles he seemed to inherit. In the civil wars he joined himself to the side of Pompey, though he was his father's murderer, only because he looked upon him as more just and patriotic in his claims. At the battle of Pharsalia, Caesar not only spared the life of Brutus, but made him one of his friends. He, however, forgot the favour, because Caesar aspired to tyranny. He conspired with many of the citizens of Rome, and stabbed him in the senate-house. Brutus then retired into Greece, where he gained himself many friends, but was soon after pursued thither by Antony, accompanied by young Octavius. A battle was fought at Philippi. Brutus, who commanded the right wing of the republican army, defeated the enemy; but Cassius, on the left, was overpowered, and Brutus found himself surrounded by the soldiers of Antony. He, however, made his escape, and soon after fell upon his sword, B. C. 42. Brutus is not less celebrated for his literary talents, than for his valour in the field.

BUENOS AYRES, a republic on the river La Plata, colonized by the Spaniards in 1535, and raised into distinction by the Jesuits. In 1806 the chief town was surprised and captured by a British squadron under Popham, but soon re-taken by the Spaniards. In 1807 it was again attacked by the British under Whitelock, who suffered a mur-

HISTORY.

derous defeat. In 1808 these provinces proclaimed their independence of Spain, and, notwithstanding several disturbances of the factions, may now be regarded as an independent republic.

BUKHARIA, the ancient Sogdiana, was a powerful country in the time of Alexander, and exhibits a succession of Khans till 1494, when the Tartar Usbecks established a monarchy under Shah Bakt, which continued for 300 years. In 1740 it was overrun by Nadir Shah, and after his death, in 1747, the government was usurped by Rah-Imbey, who was succeeded by Beggee-Jau, whose son Hyder-Furrah is the reigning sovereign.

BULKH, a kingdom of Asia, between Persia and Cabul, known as the ancient Bactria. It was conquered by Nadir Shah of Persia, and then by Ahmed Shah of Cabul. Its present sovereign is Kilich-Aly, who acknowledges a nominal dependence on Cabul.

BUNAS, an Athenian, who being chosen arbitrator in a certain controversy, put it off from time to time, and never decided it. Hence the proverb, "Bunas iudex est."

BUNKER'S HILL, in North America, rendered famous by the disputed victory of the British and Americans, in 1775. The action was peculiarly severe, the Americans having raised a fortification on the above hill, which answered to the fire from the British vessels. They were finally compelled to abandon the post; but the British sustained considerable loss, and almost without advantage, as their enemies immediately threw up works on another hill.

BUPALUS, a painter of Clazomenæ, who, in his painting, exposed the poet Hipponactes to laughter. Hipponactes, in consequence, wrote such bitter verses against him that he hanged himself.

BURFORD, in Oxfordshire, the site of a battle between the Mercians and West Saxons, and of another, in 1649, between the republicans and the royalists, in which the latter were defeated.

BURGH-upon-Sands, a village of

Cumberland, where Edward I. died, in 1308.

BURGOYNE (John), an English general, and dramatic writer, was the natural son of lord Bingley. He entered early into the army, and, in 1762, had the command of a body of troops sent to Portugal, for the defence of that kingdom against the Spaniards. He distinguished himself in the American war by his activity and the taking of Ticonderago; but after two severe engagements he was forced to surrender, with his whole army, to general Gates, in 1777, which event occasioned the alliance between America and France.

BURGOS, an important military post and fortified town in Spain, where the French defeated the Spaniards in 1808. It was unsuccessfully besieged by the duke of Wellington in 1812.

BURGUNDY, formerly a kingdom, and latterly a dukedom, but seized on the death of Charles the Bold, in 1477.

BURGUNDIANS, a tribe of Germans, who occupied a part of France in 412, which has since been called Burgundy. It was long an independent state, and at last united to the kingdom of France, in 1482.

BURKE (Edmund), a statesman and great political writer, contemporary with Pitt and Fox, whose political principles he alternately avowed. After finishing his education at Trinity college, he entered of the temple, but devoted himself to literature. His political career began with his accompanying Mr. Hamilton as secretary to the lord-lieutenant of Ireland; at his return he was made private-secretary to the marquis of Rockingham. On the decline of that ministry, he wrote a pamphlet on the subject, and became an active member of the opposition, being chosen for Bristol without expence. His speeches in the senate had now eclipsed even the reputation of his writings, and were delivered with a vehemence which it was difficult to resist. On the return of the Rockingham administration, Mr. Burke, for a short time, filled the office of pay-

master-general, and afterwards shared the emoluments and abuse of the united administration. The leading features of his subsequent political life, in which he held no office, are his impeachment of Mr. Hastings, his opposition to the limited regency, (1788); his prediction of the effects of the French revolution, and his separation from Mr. Fox upon those sentiments. This was his last great political act, all his subsequent ones being to establish and defend it. On this subject he published several pamphlets, the merit of which obtained him a pension, and many severe reflections from his opponents, to which he replied in "A Letter to a Noble Lord," replete with sarcastic irony. He died July 8, 1797, having previously vacated his seat for Malton. Mr. Burke had a most commanding oratory, to enhance which he spared no incidental act of gesticulation and manner; and, on one occasion, actually drew forth a dagger from his bosom, and brandished it, to give a greater effect to his remarks.

BUSACO, in Portugal, celebrated for the repulse of the French under Massena, and by the English under lord Wellington, in September, 1810.

BUSTA GALLICA, a place in Rome, near the *Æquimelium*, where the Gauls buried those who died of the plague.

BUXAR, in India, the scene of the defeat of the Sujah Dowlah by the British, under lord Clive, 1764.

BYNG (George), an English admiral, who was born in 1693. After passing through different ranks of the profession, he became rear-admiral in 1703. In 1706 he relieved Barcelona, besieged by the

duke of Anjou; and in 1706 effectually frustrated the designed invasion by the French for the Pretender; and, in 1717, another by the Swedes. In 1718, he defeated the Spanish fleet off Sicily, and protected that island from the Spaniards. For these services he received many offices and honours, and among others was created Viscount Torrington. He died in 1733.

BYNG (John), an English admiral, and son of the above. He served under his father, in most of his expeditions, and was always esteemed a good seaman and a brave man, but fell a victim to popular clamour. Failing in his commission to relieve Minorca, in 1755, he was tried by a court-martial; and, notwithstanding their recommendation to mercy, was shot, in 1757. After party-furor had subsided, and his conduct had been dispassionately examined, his intentions were allowed to be good, his courage undisputed, and his death the consequence of rancorous misrepresentation, from nothing more than personal dislike. His conduct in his last moments assisted no part of the evidence against him; there was no boast in word or manner to overthrow the imputation; it was cool, determined, dignified, and resigned. Immediate posterity owned him the British admiral; his connections the man of honour; and it was obtained from among the secrets of ministerial intrigue, that he was a victim to unworthy ascendancy, and was not deserving of the disgrace of an execution, which to him was greater than the execution itself. His fearlessness of the work of his executioners evinced his disregard of the loss of mere animal life—the disgrace was felt.

HISTORY.

C.

CABADES, king of Persia, succeeded his father Obalaz in 486, but was dethroned in 497, and restored again in 501. In 503 Cabades besieged Amida, and captured it after five months' siege, through the treachery of some friars, whom he afterwards beheaded. He died in 539.

CABUL, a very ancient city, at present the capital of Afghanistan. In 1739 it was taken by Nadir Shah, who, after permitting his troops to plunder it, annexed it, together with the province, to Persia. Upon his death, it was taken by Ahmed Shah Abdally, and in 1774 was made the capital of Afghanistan, by his son Timour Shah.

CADÉ, (John), a native of Ireland, who had been obliged to fly into France. On his return to England, in 1450, observing the discontents of the people, he availed himself of them to execute a plan at once original and daring. He assumed the popular name of John Mortimer; the common people of Kent, to the number of 20,000, flocked to his standard, and he inflamed their zeal by publishing complaints against the numerous abuses in government, and demanding a redress of the grievances. Cade having gained a complete victory over sir Humphrey Stafford who was sent against him, near Sevenoaks, advanced with his followers towards London, and encamped on Blackheath. Here he transmitted to the court a plausible list of grievances, promising that when these should be redressed, he would immediately lay down his arms. The council, perceiving the reasonableness of his pretensions, carried the king, for safety, to Kenilworth, and the city immediately opened its gates to Cade. But losing his authority over his followers, who proceeded to acts of violence and plunder, the citizens, who had hitherto been passive, now took the alarm, and being seconded by a detachment of soldiers, repulsed the rebels with great slaughter. A price was soon after

set on Cade's head, and he was killed by one Iden, a gentleman of Sussex; many of his followers were brought to punishment.

CADIZ, a celebrated city of Spain, in Andalusia, the origin of which is referred by tradition to the Phœnicians. In 1506 it was taken and pillaged by the English under the earl of Essex, and lord-high-admiral Howard. In 1625 lord Wimbledon was sent hither with a fleet of eighty ships, and an army of 10,000 men; but he only landed the army, which, after storming a fort, was obliged to embark. In 1702 the duke of Ormond and sir George Rooke, in conjunction with the Dutch, made an attempt to seize Cadiz for the archduke Charles, but they found it impracticable. In 1800 Cadiz was bombarded by the English; in 1806 the French fleet surrendered here to the Spaniards; and in 1809, when Seville fell into the hands of the French, Cadiz became the seat of the central Junta, and afterwards of the Cortes. In 1810 the memorable siege of Cadiz took place. The duke of Albuquerque arrived from Estremadura on the 3d of March, when he found that the junta had been deposed, and the supreme authority vested in a regency until the meeting of the Cortes; the government of the city was entrusted to a local junta. Vigorous preparations were now made for defence, all persons capable of bearing arms were enrolled, reinforcements of British troops were received from Gibraltar and Lisbon, and the Spanish fleet was moored in the harbour under the direction of admiral Purvis, who brought in his own squadron. When the French appeared before Cadiz, Victor sent a summons to the junta stating he was ready to receive their submission to king Joseph. An answer was returned, that they acknowledged no one king of Spain but Ferdinand VII. Soult sent a similar message to Albuquerque; in reply to which the duke said, that Cadiz had nothing to fear from an army of 100,000

men. The French occupied the shores of the bay, fortified their own position, and endeavoured to annoy the shipping of the town. Fort Matagorda, fronting the isthmus, connecting the isle of Leon with Cadiz, was bravely defended for two months, by a body of British soldiers and sailors; and when the enemy gained possession of it, their heavy artillery planted there was far from producing the effect that was expected. The siege, however, was not raised till August 24, 1812, when Soult evacuated Andalusia.

CADMUS, son of Agenor king of Phœnicia, by Telephassa or Agrioppe. Soon after he had built Thebes he married Hermione, with whom he lived in the greatest cordiality, and by whom he had a son, Polydorus, and four daughters, Ino, Agave, Autonoe, and Semele. The misfortunes of their children so distracted Cadmus and Hermione, that they retired to Illyricum, loaded with grief, and infirm with age. Cadmus was the first who introduced the use of letters into Greece; but some maintain, that the alphabet which he brought from Phœnicia, was only different from that which was used by the ancient inhabitants of Greece. This alphabet consisted only of sixteen letters, to which Palamedes afterwards added four, and Simonides of Melos the same number. The worship of many of the Egyptian and Phœnician deities was also introduced by Cadmus, who is supposed to have come into Greece 1493 years before the Christian era, and to have died sixty-one years after.

CADSLAND, an insulated tract in Flanders, where the Flemings were defeated in 1383, by the English, with the loss of 3,000 men. In 1604 it was taken by the Dutch, and in 1794 by the French, who retained it till 1814.

CADWALADER, nominal sovereign of Britain in 686. Being disheartened by the progress of the Saxons, he went to Rome in 686, and died in 703. With him ceased the title of king of the Britons.

CAEN, the capital of Lower Normandy, celebrated as the favourite residence of William the Con-

queror. In 1346, when Edward III. advanced to fight the battle of Cressy, he met with little resistance until he came to Caen, which he took after a desperate conflict. In 1417 Caen was taken by the English, who retained it till 1443, when it was taken by Charles VII. of France. In 1552 admiral de Coligni took it for the Protestants, which was its last surrender, except the temporary occupancy by the Prussians in 1815.

CAERNARVON, in North Wales, where Edward I. built a strong castle in 1283. In 1294, the town and castle were surprised by the Welsh, and many English were slain; and in the civil wars of Charles I. they were twice captured, and re-taken before his death.

CÆSAR, a name common to the emperors of Rome, but belonging only to the first twelve, as being of the family of

CÆSAR (Caius Julius). He was designed for the office of high-priest of Jupiter, but being disappointed, through the enmity of his father-in-law, Cinna, and deprived of his property by Sylla, he quitted his country and his designs at the same time, and entering the service of Nicomedes, distinguished himself as a soldier at the battle of Mitylene. On his return he established his reputation as an orator in the impeachment of Dolabella; and soon after, on his voyage to Rhodes, to complete his studies in rhetoric, took and crucified the crew of a pirate who had captured him in an unarmed vessel, and taken his ransom. In the contentions of those times, he very naturally joined the party of Marius, and obtained, through Cicero, the friendship of Pompey. He afterwards served successively the offices of military tribune, quaestor, and ædile; lessening, in the latter, his popularity by the clemency of his disposition in the case of Cataline's conspiracy. There could be no honour connected with Cataline, whose treasons disquieted all Rome. He had been so liberal in the discharge of this office, that on his appointment to the government of Spain, he was obliged to Crassus to be responsible for him

HISTORY.

debts, and which, by frugal management, he was enabled to discharge. On his return to Rome, and investiture with the consulship, he effected a reconciliation betwixt Crassus and Pompey, and being set over the provinces of Gaul, enlarged the Roman boundaries, and made the first invasion and temporary conquest of Britain. These successes and their effect on the senate, in procuring his command to be extended to ten years, could not but be felt by Pompey, under whom Cæsar had been principally brought forward. His petitions to the senate were, through the interest of his rival, slighted; and it was even decreed to deprive him of his government. Cæsar immediately marched towards Italy, and stopping at the Rubicon, which formed the limits of his command, deliberated for a short time, and then resolutely passed the stream and declared against his country. Having, in sixty days, subdued all Italy, he entered Rome, from which Pompey had retired with his followers, and seized on the public treasury. His officers being successful in every other quarter, Cæsar himself blockaded Pompey in Dyrrachium, who, foiling this attempt, was followed by Cæsar and defeated at Pharsalia. On his expedition to Alexandria against Ptolemy, the head of his former friend and rival was brought to him. He wept over it, and ordered the body to be solemnly interred. In this campaign, Egypt was conquered, Alexandria taken, its library accidentally burnt, and Ptolemy himself drowned. Cæsar was now created dictator, and marching against Pharnaces, obtained so easy a triumph, that he described it to the senate in three words, "*Veni, vidi, vici.*" He then settled the affairs of Greece, and returning to Rome, won the affection of the people by his clemency. After several conquests in Africa, the defeat of Cato, Scipio, and Juba, and that of Pompey's sons in Spain, he entered Rome, triumphed over five different nations, Gaul, Alexandria, Pontus, Africa, and Spain, and was

created perpetual dictator. But his glory was about to end; his uncommon success created him enemies, and the chief of the senators, among whom was Brutus, his most intimate friend, and whom he supposed his own son, by Servilia, conspired against him, and stabbed him in the senate-house. On the first blow, Cæsar attempted to make some resistance; but when he saw Brutus among the conspirators, he submitted to his fate, and fell down at their feet, muffling up his mantle, and exclaiming, *Tu quoque Brute!* He died, pierced with twenty-three wounds, the 15th of March, B. C. 44, in the fifty-sixth year of his age. He was reputed to have conquered 300 nations, taken 800 cities, and defeated 3,000,000 of men, of whom 1,000,000 fell in the field.

CAFFA, a town in the Crimea, taken by Mahomet II. in 1475. It continued in the possession of the Turks till July 1770, when the Russians took it by assault; but by an agreement, this town and the rest of the Crimea were ceded to the khan of Tartary in 1774, but in 1783 they were incorporated with the Russian empire, and Caffa became the capital of a circle.

CAI-FONG, or KAI-FONG, a city of China, besieged in 1642 by a body of 100,000 rebels, when the commander of a body of troops, sent for its relief, attempted to drown the enemy, by breaking down the embankment of the river. The stratagem was successful, and the enemy was destroyed; but the ruin of the city followed, and the inundation was so sudden that 300,000 inhabitants perished.

CAIRO, or KAHIRAH, an extensive city, the metropolis of modern Egypt. It is said to have been founded in 973, by one of the generals of Moezz Ledinillah, the first of the Fatimite caliphs. Two centuries after this, Saladin enlarged and surrounded it with walls. The Saracens having neglected Alexandria, Cairo became the capital of Egypt in its stead, and has long been considered throughout Egypt unrivalled in the world for extent and magnificence,

CAIRO, a town of Piedmont, where, on September 21, 1794, a bloody battle was fought between the French and Austro-Sardinians, in which the latter were defeated. In 1796 the town was captured by the French.

CALAIS, a sea-port of France, was, in the twelfth century, a village belonging to the counts of Boulogne. In 1346 Edward III. of England, after his great victory of Cressy, laid siege to it, and concerted his measures so well, that his adversaries could not throw succours into the place. Nearly 2,000 of the wretched inhabitants, who had been sent out by the garrison to lessen the consumption of provisions, came to the camp of the besiegers. Edward gave each of them a hearty meal and two shillings, and provided them a retreat for their future safety. The French army had scarcely assembled before Calais, when the place was surrendered to the English. The important post of Calais was in the possession of the English until 1538, when it was invested and attacked by the duke of Guise; and after a siege of eight days, it was obliged to capitulate. During the operations of Francis I. and the duke of Bouillon, against the emperor Charles V. of Germany, a congress was held at Calais, under the mediation of Henry VIII. of England, but which proved unsuccessful.

CALCUTTA, a city of Bengal, and the capital of the British possessions in India. (See *Black Hole*.)

CALED, the proselyte of Mecca: he rescued the holy banner from the Romans in the battle of Muta, in which nine swords were broken in his hand. He was chosen to the command of the Saracens; his skillful evolutions secured victory or retreat; and Caled is renowned among his brethren and enemies as the "sword of God." This battle happened about the year 630.

CALIGULA (Calus Caesar), a Roman emperor, he was the son of Germanicus and Agrippina, and a monster whose whole life, with a single exception, presented but one series of acts of horrible cruelty, disgusting absurdity, daring impiety, and

revolting impurity. His father's name had obtained for him a favourable prejudice, and on his accession, he shewed some signs of clemency and liberality. But before this period, and while yet a boy, he had given the first proof of his disposition by an incestuous intercourse with his sister. He afterwards openly married her, and on her death built temples and ordered divine honours to be paid to her. He, however, found a suitable successor in Cornelia, and thus satiating his lust, employed more immediately the other tendencies of his disposition. His murders were common, and dignified by the rank and relationship of the victims; yet these were insufficient, and he openly avowed the wish "that the people of Rome had but one head, that he might sever it at a blow." His follies were innumerable, and such as the world never paralleled. Among them may be reckoned his bridge of boats built from Baie to Puteoli, to be passed over and destroyed; his expedition against Britain, when the soldiers gathered cockleshells for their prey; and lastly, his design of decimating the German army for a revolt. To this last act, the world owed its deliverance from the monster; he was assassinated A. D. 41. His wife and even his daughter were sacrificed by the people, his statues demolished, and all his public acts annulled.

CALIPHS, List of—

The first four Caliphs.

Abu Becr	A. D.	632
Omar	.	634
Othman	.	644
Ali	.	653

Caliph of the family of
Mohammed.

Hasan, or Al-Hasan, the son of Ali and Fatima	.	660
Caliphs of the house of Ommiyah.		
Moawiyah I.	.	661
Yezid I.	.	680
Moawiyah II.	.	684
Abd'allah Ebn Zobeir, not of the house of Ommiyah, is saluted Caliph of Mecca	.	684
Merwan I.	.	684
Abd'almalec	.	684

HISTORY.

Al Walid I.	A. D. 705	him in his capital a year, and put
Soliman	715	him to death in 1206.
Omar Ebn Abd'alaziz, or		CALONNE (Charles Alexander
Omar II.	718	de), an eminent statesman, born in
Yezid II.	720	1734, succeeded to the management
Hesham	724	of an empty treasury in 1783, and
Al Walid II.	743	wonderfully continued to meet its
Yezid III.	744	claims without adding to the bur-
Ibrahim	744	thens of the people. He advised
Merwan II.	744	the suppression of the pecuniary
Caliphs of the family of Al Abbas.		exemptions protecting the nobility,
Abu'l Abbas Al Saffah	749	clergy, and magistracy. He was,
Abul Jaafar Al Mansur	754	however, obliged to retire from the
Al Mohdi	775	vengeance of those bodies while in
Musa Al Hadi	785	England: and he wrote two ele-
Harun Al Rashid	786	gant defences. He died in 1802.
Al Amin	809	CALPY, a town of Hindostan,
Al Mamun	813	near which the Mahrattas were
Al Motasem, or Al Mo'tasem	833	defeated by the British with great
Al Wathec Bi'llah	843	slaughter in 1765.
Al Motawakkel Ala'llah	847	CAMBRA Y, a strong town of
Al Montaser Bi'llah	861	French Flanders, celebrated in di-
Al Mosta'in Bi'llah	862	plomatic history for several im-
Al Mo'tazz	866	portant negotiations. The town
Al Mohtadi Bi'llah	869	was taken by Charles V. in 1544;
Al Mo'tamed Ala'llah	870	by the Spauliards in 1596; and by
Al Mo'taded Bi'llah	892	Louis XIV. in person, in 1677. In
Al Moctafi Bi'llah	902	August 1793 it was unsuccessfully
Al Moctader Bi'llah	906	besieged by the Austrians, and in
Al Kaher Bi'llah	932	the campaign of 1815 it was taken
Al Radi Bi'llah	934	by the British, and made the head-
Al Mottaki Bi'llah	941	quarters of the allied armies.
Al Mostaf Bi'llah	944	CAMBRAY, League of, was
Al Moti Li'llah	946	formed soon after peace was con-
Al Tay Li'llah	974	cluded with the sultan Bajazet, in
Al Kader Bi'llah	991	which the pope, the king of France
Al Kayser Beamri'llah	1031	as duke of Milan, the king of Ar-
Al Moktadi Beamri'llah	1075	ragon and Naples, the republic of
Al Mostadher Bi'llah	1094	Florence, and the duke of Ferrara,
Al Mostarshed Bi'llah	1118	agreed to a partition of the Vene-
Al Rashid Bi'llah	1135	tian dominions. The duke of
Al Moktafi Beamri'llah	1136	Savoy also afterwards embraced
Al Mostanjed Bi'llah	1160	the league.
Al Mostadi Beamri'llah	1170	CAMBYSES, a king of Persia,
Al Nafer Ledini'llah	1180	and son of Cyrus the Great. He
Al Dhaher Bi'llah	1225	conquered Egypt, and was so of-
Al Mostanser Bi'llah	1226	fended at the superstition of the
Al Mosta'sem Bi'llah	1242	Egyptians, that he killed their

CALLICRATIDAS, a Spartan commander, who defeated Conon the Athenian general, and afterward blocked him up in Mitylene. He fell in an engagement with the Athenians, B. C. 405.

CALO, John, or Beau John, king of the Bulgarians in the beginning of the thirteenth century. In 1202, he made war against the emperor Baldwin, whom he took prisoner in ambuscade, confined

him in his capital a year, and put him to death in 1206.

CALONNE (Charles Alexander de), an eminent statesman, born in 1734, succeeded to the management of an empty treasury in 1783, and wonderfully continued to meet its claims without adding to the burthens of the people. He advised the suppression of the pecuniary exemptions protecting the nobility, clergy, and magistracy. He was, however, obliged to retire from the vengeance of those bodies while in England: and he wrote two elegant defences. He died in 1802.

CALPY, a town of Hindostan, near which the Mahrattas were defeated by the British with great slaughter in 1765.

CAMBRA Y, a strong town of French Flanders, celebrated in diplomatic history for several important negotiations. The town was taken by Charles V. in 1544; by the Spauliards in 1596; and by Louis XIV. in person, in 1677. In August 1793 it was unsuccessfully besieged by the Austrians, and in the campaign of 1815 it was taken by the British, and made the headquarters of the allied armies.

CAMBRAY, League of, was formed soon after peace was concluded with the sultan Bajazet, in which the pope, the king of France as duke of Milan, the king of Aragon and Naples, the republic of Florence, and the duke of Ferrara, agreed to a partition of the Venetian dominions. The duke of Savoy also afterwards embraced the league.

CAMBYSES, a king of Persia, and son of Cyrus the Great. He conquered Egypt, and was so offended at the superstition of the Egyptians, that he killed their god Apis, and plundered their temples. Cambyzes afterwards sent an army of 50,000 men to destroy Jupiter Ammon's temple, and resolved to attack the Carthaginians and Æthiopians. He appointed his son to succeed him, telling him to remember where he sat. He died 521 years before Christ. He left no issue to succeed him, and his throne was usurped by the magi, and ascended by Darius soon after.

CAMDEN, a town of the United States, near which a battle was fought in 1780, between general Gates and lord Cornwallis, in which Gates was defeated.

CAMELFORD, a town of Cornwall, celebrated as the scene of two important battles between the Britons and Saxons, in 828, when the former were defeated; and the other between king Arthur and his nephew Mordred, who was killed.

CAMILLUS (Marcus Furius), an illustrious Roman, who obtained four triumphs, and five times served the office of dictator; but being prosecuted on a charge of peculation, he went into voluntary banishment. While he was absent, Brennus, at the head of an army of Gauls, took Rome and besieged the senate in the capitol. Camillus, forgetting his wrongs, flew to the relief of his country, defeated the barbarian, and was created dictator. He died 365 B. C.

CAMOENS (Luis de), was born at Lisbon, about the year 1524. He accompanied king John III. in his expedition to Africa, and on his return sailed to India, where he contributed to the success of an expedition against the Pimenta Isles, and in 1555 went with Manuel de Vasconcelos to the Red Sea. While in the East he gave some offence to the government of Goa, in consequence of which he was banished to Macao. After an absence of sixteen years he returned to his native country; when, to crown his misfortunes, he suffered shipwreck, losing all his property except his manuscript of the *Lusiad*. At length he was reduced to the extremity of wretchedness, and died in an almshouse in 1579.

CAMPBELL (Archibald), earl and marquis of Argyle, was born in 1698. He was a zealous partizan of the coveasers. Charles I. created him a marquis in 1641, notwithstanding his countenancing nonconformity between the churches of Scotland and England. He persuaded Charles II.'s visit to Scotland, and his coronation at Scone in 1651; but, being made prisoner, by one

of the parliamentary generals, he promised obedience, and obtained his release. At the restoration, he was tried for high-treason, and beheaded in 1661.

CAMPBELL (Archibald), earl of Argyle, the son of the above, was, for his bravery at the battle of Dunbar, exempted out of the general pardon by Cromwell, in 1654. Charles, however, would have sacrificed him to the jealousy of his father's enemies, upon the shallowest pretext, but for the interposition of lord Clarendon. Upon this he was restored to his estates and honours, which were even increased upon him. He was however caught in the trap of the oaths to the duke of York, and was again condemned to death. He escaped to Holland, and throwing off his fealty in good earnest, returned and aided the attempt of the duke of Monmouth. He was taken, and beheaded at Edinburgh in 1685.

CAMPBELL (John), the second duke of Argyle and Greenwich, was born in 1678. In 1703 he succeeded his father, and in 1706 he served under the duke of Marlborough, and was brigadier-general at the battle of Ramillies. He distinguished himself also at the battles of Oudenarde and Malplaquet, and assisted at the sieges of Lille and Ghent. In 1712 he had the military command in Scotland, of which post, however, he was soon after deprived for opposing the court measures. On the accession of George I. he was restored, and received additional honours. In 1715 he engaged the earl of Mar's army at Dumblain, and compelled the pretender to quit the kingdom. In 1718 he was created duke of Greenwich. He died in 1743.

CAMPEGGIO (Lorenzo), a cardinal, was born at Milan in 1474. He was twice legate from the pope to England, and while there, in 1519, to collect for the crusade, was made, by Henry VIII., bishop of Salisbury. He was afterwards engaged on the subject of the divorce, in which he greatly displeased his mutable patron, while he gave no satisfaction to

HISTORY.

the opposite party. He died at Rome, in 1539. He was a friend of Erasmus.

CAMPERDOWN, off which the Dutch fleet, under the command of admiral de Winter, in 1797, was defeated by the English, commanded by admiral Duncan. The Dutch squadron drew up in line of battle on the larboard tack, with the country between Camperdown and Egmont about nine miles to leeward. The English admiral immediately broke the line, regardless of the shore, and determined either to conquer or perish. The two hostile commanders, on board of ships exactly equal in size and guns, singled out each other, and after a most desperate engagement of more than two hours, de Winter was obliged to strike his colours, his ship the *Vryheid* having lost all her masts, being greatly damaged in her hull, and having her decks crowded with the dying and dead. The vice-admiral's ship also surrendered, with three others of ninety-eight guns, two of sixty-four, and two vessels of inferior force. Rear-admiral Storry fled for the Texel, with part of his division in the beginning of the action, and afterwards, under pretence of having saved part of the fleet, made a merit of his infamous and disgraceful conduct.

CAMPO-FORMIO, the treaty of, was signed on the 17th of October, 1797, by which the emperor of Austria ceded to the French republic, the whole of the Austrian Netherlands, and consented to their remaining in full possession of the Venetian islands of Corfu, Zante, Cephalonia, and all the other isles in the Adriatic, together with their settlements in Albania. He also acknowledged the Cisalpine republic as an independent state; and ceded to it the sovereignty of the countries in Lombardy, which had formerly belonged to Austria, and consented that it should possess Bergamo, Brescia, and other territories, late in the dependence of Venice, together with the duchies of Mantua and Modena, the principalities of Ca-

veara and Massa, and the cities of Romagna, Ferrara, and Bologna, lately belonging to the pope. The cessions on the part of France were Istria, Dalmatia, the city of Venice, with a large portion of the dominions of that republic, and all the Venetian islands in the Adriatic, lying to the north-west of the gulf of Lodrino. These were the principal articles of the treaty of Campo Formio.

CANAAN, a country situated between the Mediterranean and the mountains of Arabia, and extending from Egypt to Phœnicia. The first inhabitants were descended from Canaan, who settled colonies in almost all the islands, &c. of the Mediterranean. They were subdued by the Israelites, under Joshua, who destroyed many of them, and obliged the rest to flee to Greece and Africa. The colonies, which Cadmus carried to Thebes, in Beotia, and his brother Cilix into Cilicia, were from Canaan; and Sicily, Sardinia, Malta, Cyprus, Corfu, Majorca, and Minorca, are said to have been peopled by the Canaanites.

CANADA, a country in North America, in the possession of the British. In 1524, Francis I. of France sent four ships, under Verazani, a Florentine, to prosecute discoveries in this country. In 1535 James Cartier, of St. Maloes, sailed up the river St. Lawrence; formed alliances with the natives; took possession of the territory; built a fort, and wintered in the country. Henry IV. appointed the marquis de la Roche lieutenant-general of Canada, and the neighbouring countries. In 1606 the city of Quebec was founded, and from this period the establishment of a permanent French colony commenced. In 1629, an English expedition took possession of Quebec; but it was surrendered again to the French by the treaty of St. Germain. In 1690, a bold attempt was made, but without effect, to reduce Canada to subjection to the crown of England. The attempt was renewed in 1711, but equally in vain. Canada continued in the occupation of the French till the breaking out of the

war between France and England in 1756. In 1759, the British government formed the project of attempting its conquest—by three different but simultaneous attacks. The English took possession of Quebec, after a gallant resistance on the part of the French; the English general, Wolfe, was killed. The whole province of Canada was soon after subdued by the English, and was confirmed to Great Britain by the treaty of 1763. In 1775, Canada was invaded by a body of provincial troops; Montreal was taken, and an unsuccessful attempt was made on Quebec. During the revolutionary war, Upper Canada became the theatre of a sanguinary contest. The province has since remained subject to Great Britain.

CANAYE (Phillip sieur du Fresne,) an eminent French statesman, under Henry IV. sent by him on several embassies. He was converted from Calvinism, at the famous conference between Du Peron and Du Plessis Mornay. He died in 1610.

CANDY, a kingdom of Ceylon, the inhabitants of which generally trusting to the deliterious effects of their climate, have usually remained victorious, while their enemies have been obliged to retreat with diminished numbers. In 1658, the Dutch, with an army of 8000 men, gained possession of the capital, where, after maintaining themselves nine months, they lost half their force, and only a few reached the coast. That nation being expelled by the English in 1795, a war arose with the Candians in 1802, and an army of 3000 men reached the capital under general Mendarval, and placed Mooto Sawmy, a competitor for the sovereignty, on the throne. The army being withdrawn, except a small detachment, the natives invested the town. The wretched state of the troops induced the commanding officer, major Davie, to surrender Candy the next day, on condition of being allowed to march to Trincomalee, and that the Candian government should take care of the sick and wounded. On arriving at the banks of

the river Mahavilla-Gonga, the detachment found it not fordable, and applied to the Candians for rafts. The king now demanded the person of Mooto Sawmy, as the only condition on which the English should cross. This being agreed to, they then demanded the arms of the detachment, which were also yielded. The native troops were next separated from the Europeans, and the latter led out two by two, and cruelly massacred, while the sick in the town were butchered in cold blood. Major Davie was retained by the Candians, and among them he died. Thus, in ten days from the surrender of the capital, the Candians regained the whole of their territory. In 1864, the natives again attempted to expel the British from the island. Another expedition was accordingly planned; but only one detachment of 305 troops and 550 pioneers and coolies went out. They took possession of Candia, but the place being untenable by so small a force, capt. Johnson, the commander, effected his retreat with great bravery, with the loss of only forty-eight men in the course of his expedition. An interval of peace succeeded, but the king having treated some British merchants with wanton barbarity, another expedition was resolved on. In February, 1815, an army of 3000 men invaded Candy, and took the capital. The king having barbarously murdered the family of his prime-minister, he was taken prisoner, bound with ropes, and consigned to the commander of the troops, by whom he was sent in captivity to Colombo. This sovereign, Wikreme, was formally deposed March 2, 1816, and the kingdom of Candy annexed to the British dominions.

CANNON was invented in 1330; was used by the Moors at the siege of Algesiras, in Spain, in 1344; and at the battle of Cressy, in 1346, when Edward had four pieces, which gained him the battle. Cannon was used at the siege of Calais, in 1347; in Denmark, 1354; at sea, by Venice against Genoa, in 1377; first in Spain, 1406; made in England of brass, in 1635; of iron, in 1647;

invented to shoot whales in 1721; first used in England, at the siege of Berwick, in 1405. Bombs and mortars were invented in 1634.

CANTAGUZENUS (John,) emperor of Constantinople, was born about 1300. His father was governor of Peloponnessus, and his mother of the royal family. In 1328, the emperor Andronicus made him generalissimo of his army, and first minister of state. On his death, in 1341, Cantaguzenus was left guardian of the young emperor, John Paleologus, which trust he discharged with extraordinary fidelity; for which the principal nobility and army elected him emperor, and he was crowned in 1342. A long civil war ensued, in which Cantaguzenus was victor; but in 1353 he abdicated the throne, and retired to a monastery. He died above one hundred years old, in 1411.

CANUTE, or **KNUD**, the Great, king of Denmark and of England, succeeded his father Sweyn in the former kingdom, about the year 1014. He commenced his reign by an expedition against England; but hearing that the king of Norway had invaded Denmark, he was obliged to make a precipitate return. Having repulsed the invader, he resumed his enterprise, and landing on the southern coast, committed dreadful ravages; but Edmund Ironside opposed him with such bravery, that Canute agreed to divide the kingdom between them. On the murder of Edmund by Edric in 1017, Canute obtained the whole kingdom in an assembly of the states, and put to death Edric and several of the English nobility who had basely deserted their sovereign. He likewise levied heavy taxes on the people, and particularly the inhabitants of London. The king of Sweden having attacked Denmark, he embarked thither, and slew the Swedish monarch in battle. Canute's reproof of the flattery of his courtiers is well known. He died at Shaftsbury in 1035.

CANUTE IV. called the pious, king of Denmark, undertook an expedition to England, which failed, and was slain by one of his subjects, owing to his exorbitant

grants to the church in 1087. For this he was canonized by pope Alexander III. in 1164.

CANNÆ (battle of), between the Carthaginians, under Hannibal, and the Romans, 216 B. C. The two armies lay encamped near the village of Cannæ, in Apulia, the river Aufidus parting them. The Romans were commanded by the two consuls, Caius Terentius Varro, and Lucius Æmilius Paulus. Æmilius would have dissuaded his colleague from putting all to hazard; but Varro, rash and intemperate, would not endure the bravadoes of Hannibal, who had offered them battle at their trenches. When it was his turn to command, he passed over the river, by break of day, and gave the signal for battle, without the privacy of Æmilius. The Roman army was marshaled in the usual form. On the right, and towards the river, were the Roman horse, under the consul Paulus. On the left wing was Varro, with the rest of the horse, Latins and their associates. Cn. Servilius, consul the preceding year, had the leading of the main battle. Hannibal placed his Africans in the wings; these he had armed and well trained, in the Roman manner, with the spoils taken at Trebia and Thrasymene. In the middle, he ranged his Gauls and Spaniards, armed after their own manner, the Gauls using long broad swords, the Spaniards short and well-pointed blades. On the right wing was Maharbal, with the Numidian light-horse. Between the Africans, on his left, and the river, were the Gallic and Spanish horse, under the command of Asdrubal. Hannibal, with his brother Mago, had the leading of the rear. His darters and Balearian slingers he had sent before, to encounter the Roman velites. His whole army has been rated at 10,000 horse and 40,000 foot, his enemies having two to one against him in infantry, and he five to three against them in cavalry. The light-horse and slingers began first to skirmish, after whom Asdrubal charged the troops of

horse that were led by *Æmilias*, and broke them. The fight was stubborn, though it lasted not long; the Roman gentlemen were unequal to *Asdrubal's* Gauls and Spaniards, both in number and in horsemanship.

Hannibal caused his Gallic and Spanish foot to advance, leaving void the space where they had stood to retire into when hardly pressed. When they came to close fight, the legionaries made so strong a resistance, that the Gauls and Spaniards, unable to withstand their force, retired, in haste and confusion, towards their first place, where Hannibal was ready to reinforce them. Whilst the legions, following their victory, rushed on upon those who stood before them, the Africans, on either side, advanced so far, that getting behind the rear, the Romans were, in a manner, inclosed.

During these transactions, *Varro* with the horse of his associates was no less troubled, by *Maharbal* and the Numidians, who beating up and down the plain, raised a foul dust, which a strong south wind drove into the eyes and mouths of the Romans. Using their advantage of lightness, they wearied the consul, continually making offers, but neither giving nor sustaining any charge. Five hundred of these Numidian horsemen had surrendered themselves to *Varro*, and thrown down their arms; he received them courteously, and placed them in the rear. They had short swords and daggers under their jackets, with which, and with other scattered weapons, when they found opportunity, they fell upon the hindmost of the Romans, doing great mischief, and raising a yet greater terror.

The last blow that ended all resistance, was given by the same hand that gave the first. *Asdrubal* having cut in pieces all the Roman horse that opposed him, fell back upon the rear, and fetching a compass, came up to the Numidians, with whom he joined, and made charge upon *Varro*. It was then a

throng of men warwounded, and seemingly unable to make resistance. The Romans had run into the throat of slaughter, not seeing those weapons bent against them, which, when they did see, they had little hope to escape. The bulk of their army was impaled, as within a sack, whereof the African battalions made the sides, the Spaniards, Gauls, and Hannibal, with his Carthaginians, the bottom, and *Asdrubal* closed up the mouth.

In this great battle, wherein the Carthaginian excelled himself, (his military skill embellishing the greatness that was in his spirit and undertaking), there died, besides *Æmilias* the consul, two *quæstors* or treasurers, twenty-one tribunes or colonels, and eighty senators, or such as had borne office, out of which they were to be chosen into the senate. Many of these were of superior rank, having been *ædiles*, *prætors*, or consuls; among them was *Servilius*, the last year's consul, and *Minutius*, late master of the horse. The consul *Varro* saved himself by flying.

Livy writes that 40,000 footmen, and above 2,700 horse were slain; *Polybius* says that there were many more. The prisoners taken amounted to 3,000 foot, and 200 horse, according to *Livy*; others report that there were not less than 8000. It is certain that the Romans never had a greater loss, without excepting their terrible overthrow, by the Gauls, in the battle at the river of *Allia*.

On the side of Hannibal, there fell about 4000 Gauls, 1500 Spaniards and Africans, and 200 horse. Had he pursued his victory, and marched forthwith to Rome, he might, as many conjecture, have presently ended the war—but he believed not so far his own prosperity or good fortune.

CAPE OF GOOD HOPE, nearly at the southern extremity of Africa, long in the hands of the Dutch, was found, on the conquest by the English, in the year 1795, to be 550 English miles in length, and 233 in breadth. This flourishing colony was originally obtained

- HISTORY.

by the Dutch. Van Riebeck, surgeon of one of the Dutch company's ships; having touched at the Cape, was struck with the extent of the bay, capable of containing more than one hundred vessels; its situation, half-way between Europe and India; and the nature of the soil, which seemed proper for every kind of cultivation. On his return, he communicated his ideas to the company, who approved of his plan, and gave him full powers to carry it into execution. Van Riebeck accordingly embarked with four vessels, and, after arriving at the Cape, purchased from the inhabitants land for an establishment, for which he gave them merchandise, to be selected at their own choice, to the value of fifty thousand florins. In the year 1805, the Cape was again taken by the English, by whom it is still retained.

CAPEL (Arthur, lord,) was the son of sir Henry Capel, knt. In the parliament of 1640 he represented the county of Hertford, and voted for the attainder of the earl of Strafford, which he afterwards repented. Finding that the parliament went farther than he wished, he began to oppose their measures, for which the king created him lord Capel of Hadham. In the civil war he acted so zealously for the royal cause, that the house of commons confiscated his estates. In 1649 he defended Colchester against the parliament forces, but was obliged to surrender upon promise of quarter; notwithstanding which, he was committed to the Tower, from whence he made his escape, was taken, tried, and condemned to be hanged, which sentence was changed to beheading, and carried into execution on March 9, 1649.

CAPEL (Arthur,) son of the preceding, was created earl of Essex on account of his father's loyalty and his own merits. He was also sent ambassador to Denmark, made lord-lieutenant of Ireland, and promoted to other honours, of which he was deprived on his opposition to the duke of

York's accession. In 1683 he was charged of being concerned in the Rye-house plot, on which he was committed to the Tower, where he was found with his throat cut by a razor.

CAPITOLIUM, a celebrated temple and citadel at Rome, on the Tarpeian rock, the plan of which was made by Tarquin Priscus. It was begun by Servius Tullius, finished by Tarquin Superbus, and consecrated by the consul Horatius, after the expulsion of the Tarquins from Rome. It was built upon four acres of ground, the front was adorned with three rows of pillars, and the other sides with two. The ascent to it from the ground was by an hundred steps. The magnificence and richness of this temple are almost incredible. All the consuls successively made donations to the capital, and Augustus bestowed upon it at one time 3000 pounds weight of gold. Its thresholds were made of brass, and its roof was gold. It was adorned with vessels and shields of solid silver, with golden chariots, &c. It was burnt during the civil war of Marius, and Sylla rebuilt it, but died before the dedication, which was performed by Q. Catulus. It was again destroyed in the troubles under Vitellius; and Vespasian, who endeavoured to repair it, saw it again in ruins at his death. Domitian raised it again, for the last time, and made it more grand and magnificent than any of his predecessors, and spent 12,000 talents in gilding it. When they first dug for the foundations, they found a man's head called Tullius, sound and entire in the ground, and from thence drew an omen of the future greatness of the Roman empire. The hill was from that circumstance called Capitolium,—a *Capite Toll*.

CAPRANU, a village of European Turkey, in the province of Livadia, nearly corresponding with the antient Chæroneæ, a city of Bœtia. Northward, is the plain, where the death-blow was given to Grecian liberty by the victory of Philip of Macedon, over the Athenians and Thebans, B. C. 336.

This plain is also celebrated for a prior engagement between the Athenians and Boeotians, B. C. 447, and for the defeat of the army of Mithridates, by Sylla, A. D. 667.

CAPUA, the chief city of Campania in Italy, supposed to have been founded by Capys, the father, or rather the companion, of Aeneas. The soldiers of Hannibal, after the battle of Cannæ, were enervated by the pleasures and luxuries which powerfully prevailed in this voluptuous city, and under a soft climate. January, 1799, Capua was occupied by a body of French troops, who were compelled to surrender to a body of troops of various nations, commanded by an officer of the British navy; and, in 1803, the town was much damaged by an earthquake.

CARACCAS, a province of South America, belonging to Spain, first discovered by Columbus. After several unsuccessful efforts to settle it by missionaries, it was reduced by arms, and assigned to some German merchants by Charles V. but owing to the abuses of their administration, they were dispossessed in 1550, and a supreme governor appointed. From this period, it remained in quiet subjection till 1810, when the inhabitants, dreading the fate of Spain, resolved to assert their independence, and the deputies agreed to constitute themselves into an independent republic. A declaration of rights was issued, many respectable citizens beheaded, and the goals were crowded with persons suspected of disaffection to the new authority. Another party then rose up, who still wished to correct abuses, but to continue their dependance on Spain. The two parties met, and the republicans, headed by general Miranda, gained some successes, when a tremendous earthquake happening in April, 1810, the capital was reduced to ruins, and the inhabitants, impressed with superstitious awe, forsook the republican standard in great numbers, and the Spaniards taking advantage of the panic, compelled Miranda to surrender. The affairs of the patriots, however, soon began to revive under

a new leader, and it is probable that the provinces of the Caracas will one day obtain their independence.

CARACTACUS, a British king, celebrated for his magnanimous deportment when carried before the emperor Claudius, in 52. Claudius was so touched on the occasion, as to grant him his liberty.

CARAUZIUS, emperor of Britain in 287, was a native of Flanders; he rose to that dignity from being naval commander to some of the Roman emperors. He kept up a formidable fleet, retained possession of Boulogne, and so resisted all attempts to expel him, that his independence was acknowledged by treaty. He was an arbitrary ruler, and was murdered by a domestic in 293.

CARDIFF, a town of South Wales, built in 1079, in the castle of which Robert duke of Normandy, brother to William Rufus, was confined twenty-six years. The castle was bombarded by Cromwell, and after three days' siege, fell into his hands by the treachery of a deserter.

CARDIGAN, a town of South Wales, where a battle was fought in 1136, between the English and Welsh, when the former were defeated with a loss of 3000 men.

CARDINALS, the parish-priests at Rome, took that title in 398; college of, founded by Pope Pascal I. in 817; did not elect the popes till 1160; wore the red hat, and were declared princes of the church, in 1222. The cardinals set fire to the conclave, and separated, and a vacancy in the papal chair existed for two years, in 1314; Cardinal Carasso was hanged by order of Pius IV. in 1560: as was Cardinal Poli, under Leo X.; title of Eminence, first given them by Pope Urban VIII. about 1630.

CAREW (sir Alexander,) in the parliament of 1640, voted for the attainder of the earl of Stafford, and was made governor of St. Nicholas's island and fort at Plymouth; but, becoming apprehensive that his estates would be seized by the king's forces, he solicited the royal pardon, on condition of delivering up the fort,

HISTORY.

his design, however, was discovered, and he was sent to London, tried, and beheaded, in 1644.

CARIBERT, or **CHARIBERT**, king of Paris, on the expulsion of his brother Childert, in 562. But he was excommunicated for unlawfully putting away his queen. He died in 567.

CARISBROOK castle was built by Withgan, in the sixth century, attacked by king Stephen, and taken by storm. It afterwards became celebrated for the imprisonment of Charles I.

CARINUS (Marcus Aurelius), son of the emperor Carus, who made him Cæsar in 282, and sent him into Gaul, where he plunged into debauchery. He was slain in Mysia, in 285, by a tribune.

CARLETON (Dudley), an eminent statesman, born in Oxfordshire in 1573. He bore a distinguished part in the synod of Dordt.

CARLISLE, a city of England, in the county of Cumberland, one of the most important stations at the time of the Romans. The castle was burnt by the Scots in the reign of Henry II. and twice accidentally in that of Edward I. In the reign of Henry VIII. it was besieged by an army of 8000 men: in 1644 it surrendered to general Leslie; and in 1745 it was taken by the partizans of Charles Edward, but retaken by the duke of Cumberland.

CARLOMAN, the eldest son of Charles Martel, whom he succeeded as king of Austrasia in 741. He and his father Pepin united in the defence of their dominions, defeated the Germans in 743. Carloman entered Saxony, and took the duke prisoner. After several successful expeditions he retired from his kingdom, and became a monk of the order of St. Benedict. He assembled a famous council in 742, the acts of which bear his name.

CARLOMAN, son of Louis, killed in hunting, by a wild boar, in 884.

CARLOMAN, eldest son of Louis I. king of Germany, whom he succeeded in 876, in the kingdom of Bavaria, and made some conquests in Italy. He died in 880.

CARLOMAN, younger brother of Charlemagne, with whom he

contended about the kingdom, but on his death, in 771, left him in full possession.

CARLOS (Don), son of Phillip II. king of Spain, deformed in his person, and perverse in his temper. On being crossed by his father in his designs of marriage, he excited discontents among the nobles, for which he was arrested, and condemned to death. He died shortly after in prison, 1567, probably by violence.

CARLOVINGIAN kings of Italy, of whom the first was Charlemagne, whose reign began in 774, and ended in 814. In 800, he became sovereign of Rome. Bernard, the second king, grandson of Charlemagne, was murdered in 816. Louis the pious reigned from 814 to 840; Lothaire I. from 840 to 855; Louis II. from 855 to 875; Charles the Bald, from 875 to 877; Carloman from 877 to 880, Charles the Gross, the last of the Carlovingians, from 880 to 888.

CARMAGNOLA, a Venetian general, during the reign of Foscarini, the sixty-fifth duke of Venice. He fought against Phillip of Milan, and was defeated by him at Scinina, in 1431. He was convicted soon after of a treasonable correspondence, by his own letters, and beheaded.

CARNAUL, a town of Hindostan, between which and Pamput, two memorable battles were fought, the first between Mahomet Shah, and Nadir Shah, in 1739.—and the second, between the allied Mahomedan powers and the Mahrattas, in 1761, when the army of the latter, amounting to 95,000 men, was nearly annihilated.

CAROLINE, queen of George IV., remarkable for her misfortunes, and for the courage with which she resisted the measures of her enemies, but under which she finally succumbed, from excess of endurance, in August, 1831.

CARRICKFERGUS, a sea-port town of Ireland, was taken by the French commodore Thurot, in 1760. The garrison, consisting of a small number of men, made a most valiant resistance; and though not in any respect prepared for such an attack, they

defended themselves with spirit, until their ammunition being expended, they were obliged to capitulate; of the garrison, not more than three were killed, while one hundred of the French lost their lives.

CARTERET (John,) earl of Granville, eldest son of George lord Carteret. He distinguished himself by his earnestness for the succession of the Hanover family, and received several important places under George I., among others that of viceroy of Ireland, where his administration, both then and afterwards, was generally applauded. He moved, in 1741, for the removal of Walpole, on which event, he became secretary of state. He died in 1703.

CARTHAGE, a celebrated city of Africa, the rival of Rome, and long the capital of the country, and mistress of Spain, Sicily, and Sardinia. The precise time of its foundation is unknown, yet most writers agree that it was first built by Dido, about 869 years before the Christian era, or, according to others, seventy-two or ninety-three years before the foundation of Rome. This city and republic flourished for 727 years, and the time of its greatest glory was under Hannibal and Amilcar. During the first Punic war, it contained no less than 700,000 inhabitants. It maintained three famous wars against Rome, called the Punic wars, in the third of which it was totally destroyed by Scipio the second Africanus, B. C. 147, and only 6000 persons were found within the walls. It was 23 miles in circumference, and when it was set on fire by the Romans, it burned incessantly during 17 days. After the destruction of Carthage, Utica became powerful, and the Romans thought themselves secure; and as they had no rival to dispute with them in the field, they fell into indolence and inactivity. Cæsar planted a small colony on the ruins of Carthage. Augustus sent there 3000 men; and Adrian, after the example of his imperial predecessors, rebuilt part of it, which he

called Andrianopolis. Carthage was conquered from the Romans by the arms of Genseric, A. D. 439; and it was for more than a century the seat of the Vandal empire in Africa, and fell into the hands of the Saracens in the 7th century. The Carthaginians were governed as a republic, and had two persons yearly chosen among them gifted with regal authority. They were very superstitious, and generally offered human victims to their gods; an unnatural custom, which their allies, but in vain, wished them to abolish. They bore the character of a faithless and treacherous people, and the proverb *Punica fides* is well known.

CARTHAGENA, a sea-port of Spain, on the coast of Murcia, taken by the Romans under Scipio A. D. 554. The commerce of Carthagena suffered greatly during the domination of the Moors, but it was in some measure restored by Philip II. of Spain.

CARTHAGENA, a city of South America, in the province of New Granada. The bay and country round the city, antiently called Calamari, were discovered by Rodrigo de Bastidas, but he was successfully resisted by the natives. At length, in 1523, they were subdued by Don Pedro de Heredia, who founded the city of Carthagena. In 1544, it was invaded by the French, and next by sir Francis Drake, who pillaged and set it on fire, but it was ransomed by the neighbouring colonies. In 1697, it was again invaded by the French, and in 1741, it was unsuccessfully besieged by the English. Of late years, Carthagena has suffered much during the contests of the colonies with Spain;—having been first besieged by the troops of the independents under Bolivar, and afterwards by the royal troops under Morillo. The inhabitants made an intrepid resistance, but being at length reduced, they surrendered to the latter in 1815.

CARUS (Marcus Aurelius), a Roman emperor, was born at Narbonne, about the year 230. He rose to a military command by

HISTORY.

his virtues; and was elected on the death of Probus in 283. He defeated the Sarmatians and Persians; and was killed the same year, as some say, by lightning, in his tent, but others assert that it was set on fire by his servants.

CASIMIR I. king of Poland, son of Micilas, whom he succeeded in 1034; but the Poles revolted under the regency of his mother, on which he went to Paris, where he became a monk. Seven years afterwards the Poles having discovered his retreat, obtained leave from the Pope for him to return to his kingdom and marry. He espoused a daughter of the grand duke of Russia, governed with great wisdom, civilized his subjects, and promoted commerce. He died in 1201.

CASIMIR II. surnamed the *Just*, king of Poland, was the younger son of Boleslaus III. On coming of age he was made prince of Sandomir. When his brother Mieozlaus was deposed for tyrannical conduct in 1177, the Poles conferred the crown on Casimir. He was an upright generous prince, and adopted measures to relieve the peasants from the oppression of their lords. He died in 1194, aged 77.

CASIMIR III. the Great, was born in 1309, and succeeded Ladislaus in 1333. He took several places from John king of Bohemia, and conquered Russia. He united to his warlike qualities the virtues of a great king; maintained peace, founded several churches and hospitals, and built numerous fortresses. He died in 1730.

CASIMIR IV. grand duke of Lithuania, was called to the throne of Poland in 1447. He humbled the Teutonic knights, subdued the vaivode of Wallachia, and by an edict enjoined the study and use of the Latin language, which has ever since continued to be the vernacular tongue of the Poles. He died in 1492.

CASIMIR V. (John), son of Sigismund III. He was intended for the church, became a jesuit, and was made cardinal; but on the death of Ladislaus VII. he

took the crown, and obtained permission to marry his brother's widow. He died in 1572.

CASSIBELAN, **CASSIVELLAUNUS**, or, according to the British, **CASWALLON**, a celebrated king of the Britons, who opposed Cæsar with great valour and prudence. He is said to have taken a considerable army into Gaul, where he fought the Romans with so much bravery as to provoke Cæsar to invade Britain. Cassibelan was elected to the supreme command by the other chiefs, and fixed his residence at Verulam, now St. Albans.

CASSIDOROUS, (Marcus Aurelius), a native of Italy, was appointed by Theodoric, king of the Goths, governor of Sicily; and made his secretary and priyycounsellor. In 514 he was raised to the consular dignity, in which he was continued by Theodisius and Vitiges. On the approaching fall of the Gothic kingdom, he retired to his native place in Calabria, built a hermitage and a monastery, and devoted himself to his studies and religion. He died in 577, aged ninety-six.

CASSIUS (Avidius), a Roman commander under Marcus Antoninus in 164. He defeated the Parthians, and commanding the army in Syria, restored the troops to discipline and good order. He then marched against Egypt, which he conquered. In 175, taking advantage of the information of Aurelius's illness to spread a report of his death, he was proclaimed emperor by his army. But, Aurelius immediately set out for Illyricum, and the senate proclaimed Cassius a traitor. Before the two armies met, Cassius was assassinated and his head was carried to the emperor, who spared his family, but Commodus afterwards caused them to be burnt alive.

CASSIUS (Caius), one of the murderers of Cæsar. He married the sister of Brutus, and in the participation of the provinces obtained Africa as his share. He was defeated with Brutus at Philippi, and being afraid of falling into the enemy's hands, caused

one of his freedmen to run him through the body, 42 B. C.

CASTELNAU (Michael), an eminent French writer and statesman, was employed by Charles IX. and Henry III. in many difficult and important negotiations. He died in 1592, having been five times ambassador to England.

CASTLEBAR, a town of Ireland, where the British troops, under generals Lake and Hutchinson, were defeated by an inferior force of French invaders, and fled sixty-four miles in Aug. 1798. The army took possession of the town, but retreated on the approach of lord Cornwallis.

CASTRO (John de), a Portuguese general, served against the Moors, accompanied de Gama to the East, and attended Charles V. in his expedition against Tunis. He was next made governor of the Portuguese settlements in India, where he fortified Diu, and died at that place in 1548.

CATHARINE, the daughter of Charles VI. of France, and the wife of Henry V. king of England. After the death of that prince she married Owen Tudor, by whom she had a son called Edmund, father of Henry VII. She died in 1431.

CATHARINE of Arragon, daughter of Ferdinand V. king of Castile and Arragon, espoused in 1501 Arthur son of Henry VII. and on his death, five months after, she married Henry prince of Wales, afterwards Henry VIII. by whom she had several children, all of whom died young except Mary, who became queen of England. She was divorced from Henry, on pretence of religious scruples, grounded on her former marriage. She behaved with great dignity, both during and after the dispute, and died at Kimbolton castle, in 1566.

CATHARINE DE MEDICIS, the only daughter of Lorenzo de Medici, duke of Urbino, and wife of Henry duke of Orleans, son of Francis I. She was the mother of three successive kings of France, and one queen of Navarre. In 1539 she became a widow, and her son Francis succeeded to the

throne, during whose reign her influence was supplanted by that of the Guises. On the accession of her other son Charles IX. in his eleventh year, she acquired the chief authority, and brought eternal infamy on her name by her horrible treachery to the Hugonots, and the massacre of St. Bartholomew. She died in 1589. She was addicted to pleasure, and fond of judicial astrology.

CATHARINE I. empress of Russia, was born in 1683, in Livonia, of poor parents, whom losing in her youth, she became inmate with a respectable clergyman, who had known her family, and who superintended her education till his death. She then travelled to Marienburg to seek her fortune, and there married a Swedish dragoon, who was killed on the very day of their nuptials, in the siege of that place. General Bauer then took her under his protection, and while there, she came under the notice of prince Menzikoff, who found it useful to his political designs, to introduce her to the czar. She became first his mistress, and afterwards his wife; and, though not supposed to have been faithful to his bed, she was left, at his death, possessor of the throne, and was proclaimed empress in 1725. She carried into execution the great designs which had been left unfinished by her husband, and died in 1727.

CATHARINE II. empress of Russia, was the daughter of the prince of Anhalt Zerbau, and born in 1729. Soon after her marriage with the grand duke of Russia, in 1745, that prince, suspecting her fidelity, attached himself to a daughter of Count Woronzoff; and, on his accession to the throne, in 1761, discovered his intention of divorcing Catharine and marrying her rival. At this juncture a conspiracy was formed betwixt Catharine and the army; Peter was surprised, compelled to sign a renunciation of the crown, sent prisoner to the palace of Robscha, and soon after strangled. History evidently clears Catharine of a direct participation in the crime, though

HISTORY.

became chancellor of the exchequer, but on the death of the marquis of Rockingham soon after, and the appointment of the earl of Shelburne, he and his friends resigned their places. In the coalition administration he was again chancellor of the exchequer; but the ministry were soon dismissed, and from that time he continued in opposition to his death, in 1796.

CAVENDISH (lord Frederick), field marshal of his majesty's forces, was born in 1729. Frederick prince of Wales was his godfather. He entered early on a military life, and rose to the rank of general, and field-marshal. In the action at St. Cas, on the coast of France, in 1758, he was taken prisoner, but politely dismissed on parole by the duke d'Aiguillon. He was one of the six English officers who entered into an agreement with each other not to marry until peace was restored. He died in 1803.

CECIL (William), lord Burleigh, a celebrated statesman, born in 1521. He held some small appointment under Henry VIII. but was dismissed on Mary's accession. On that of Elizabeth he was appointed privy-counsellor, secretary of state, and master of the court of wards. Soon afterwards he was chosen chancellor of Cambridge: and in 1571 advanced to the peerage. He died in 1598, leaving two sons.

CECIL (Robert), earl of Salisbury, son of the preceding, was born about 1550. In 1588 he went in the fleet against the Spanish armada, and in 1591 was knighted, and sworn of the privy-council. In 1596 he was appointed secretary of state, to the great disgust of the earl of Essex. The year following he was ambassador in France, and in 1599 succeeded his father in the court of wards, as he afterwards did in the office of secretary of state. He kept up a secret correspondence with king James, whom he proclaimed on the death of Elizabeth, in consequence of which he became the favourite of that monarch. On the death of the earl of Dorset, in

1608, he became lord high treasurer, which office he discharged with great prudence, but died from excess of business in 1612.

CECROPS, a native of Sais in Egypt, who led a colony to Attica about 1556 years before the Christian era, and reigned over part of the country, which was called from him Cecropia. He softened and polished the rude and uncultivated manners of the inhabitants, and drew them from the country to inhabit twelve small villages which he had founded. He gave them laws and regulations, and introduced among them the worship of those deities which were held in adoration in Egypt. He was deemed the first founder of Athens. After a reign of fifty years, spent in regulating his newly-formed kingdom, and in polishing the minds of his subjects, he died.

CELTÆ, a name given to the nation that inhabited the country between the Ocean and the Palus Mæotis, according to some authors mentioned by *Plut. in Mæro*.

CENSORINUS (Appius Claudius), a Roman senator and twice consul, who in 270 was compelled to accept the purple by his soldiers, who murdered him seven days afterwards. He lived in the time of Augustus.

CETHEGUS, a tribune at Rome, of the most corrupt morals, who joined Catilina in his conspiracy against the state, and was commissioned to murder Cicero. He was apprehended, and with Lentulus put to death by the Roman senate.

CHABOT (Francis), one of the actors and victims of the French revolution: he was originally a capuchin. He was executed for being concerned with Danton in 1794.

CHAIBAR, an ancient town, six days' journey to the north-east of Medina, was the seat of Jewish power in Arabia. The forces of Mohammed consisted of 200 horse, and 1400 foot. In the succession of eight regular and painful sieges, they were exposed to danger, and fatigue, and hunger, and the most undaunted chiefs despaired of the event. Chaibar at length submitted,

C H A—C H A

~~son of Pepin~~ CHARLEMAGNE, son of Pepin,

He however made his escape, but was taken in a wood, conveyed to Nantes, and shot, on Christmas-day, 800, amid the acclamations of the people. After this, he had formed the design of

HISTORY.

the death of the earl of Dorset, in consequence of which he became the favourite of that monarch. On the death of the earl of Dorset, in the event. Chaibar at length submitted.

CHABRIAS, an Athenian general, who distinguished himself by assisting the Boeotians against Agasilaus, for which a statue was erected to his honour. He conquered Cyprus for the king of Egypt, but was slain shortly after at Chio, B. C. 355.

CHALDEA, a country of Asia, near the junction of the Tigris and Euphrates, the capital of which was Babylon. (*See Babylon*).

CHALONER (sir Thomas), a statesman, was born in 1516. He attended the English embassy to the emperor Charles V. into whose service he entered as a volunteer in the expedition to Algiers. He distinguished himself at the battle of Musselburgh, for which the duke of Somerset knighted him on the field. Queen Elizabeth sent him ambassador to Germany and Spain, in which capacity he behaved with great address. He died in 1565.

CHALONER (James), son of sir Thomas Chaloner, was born in 1603. He sided in the rebellion with the parliament, and was appointed one of the king's judges. Fairfax made him governor of Peel castle in the isle of Man. On the restoration, messengers were sent to apprehend him, on which he poisoned himself.

CHALUS, or **CHALUS-CHARBREOL**, a town of France, where Richard I. king of England was mortally wounded by an arrow shot from the castle, as he was reconnoitering it, in 1199.

CHAMPLAIN (Samuel de), a French naval officer, who founded Quebec in Canada, of which he was governor-general. He died in 1634.

CHARETTE DE LA COINTRE (Francis Athanasius de), a celebrated French royalist, born in 1763. He headed an army of Bretons, and forced the republicans to enter into a treaty with him, which they violated, and the war was renewed with additional horrors and various success. He was at last defeated, in 1796. He received a wound in his head, and had three fingers of his left hand cut off by a sabre. He however made his escape, but was taken in a wood, conveyed to Nantes, and shot.

CHARLEMAGNE, son of Pepin, and sovereign of the extensive empire of the West, was the most ambitious, the most politic, and the greatest warrior of the age. His military enterprizes commenced with a war against the Saxons, which he prefaced by a demand of some cattle, which had been before required by his father! He then took Eresbourg in 772, murdered the inhabitants, pillaged and rased the principal temple of the country, and massacred its priests on the ruins of their idol. He now penetrated to the Weser, with his victorious army, and having brought the cantons into subjection, left missionaries to persuade, and soldiers to enforce, their adoption of Christianity, and marched himself to obtain new conquests. His Saxon opponent, Witikind, however, defeated his efforts, re-established paganism, and marching almost to the Rhine, obtained a victory over his lieutenants. Witikind's triumph was short; being defeated by Charlemagne, he retired into Denmark, which so incensed that monarch, that in revenge he massacred 4500 prisoners on the banks of the Aller. After three more victories, Witikind submitted to be baptized, and to pay tribute; and Charlemagne took possession of Saxony, where he mingled the wisest regulations of policy with acts of the most savage ferocity. After this, he engaged on the side of the Emirs of Barcelona and Saragossa, against the Saracens, but was defeated at Roucevaux, and lost his nephew Rowland in the engagement. His next achievement was the crown of Lombardy, in which he was greatly assisted by the intrigues of pope Adrian I. which gave him all the power, but without the title of emperor of the West. This deficiency he was not tardy in supplying. The distresses of Pope Leo III., who had been desperately abused by the nephew of his predecessor, drove him to seek succour of Charlemagne, and the result to the latter was, that he was crowned at Rome on Christmas-day, 800, amid the acclamations of the people. After this, he had formed the design of

HISTORY.

the usual
quence of which he
favourite of that
the death of the earl

land,
those
in
the
the
them-
the de-
action of
of the
they had
the minister,
attempt to
in 1677, increased
individual fana-
them of their de-
him to public
this seemed only to
them the more against
Charles, blinded by the
mical doctrines of the tur-
James, his father especially,
courted the public affection;
this exemption, acted upon
all the resolution his imbecile
was capable of, paved
way for that total loss of the
people's sympathy and regard
which they afterwards evinced.
the spirit of dissatisfaction, upon a
new exertion of the prerogative,
went vigorously to work; the real
intent of the benevolence-money
was disclosed, and the odious ship-
money had its purpose equally de-
scribed. Charles unceasingly felt
the decline of his popularity; but
he relied upon his parliaments,
and hastily called them together.
Among them, however, a new and
better spirit had arisen; they
unshakably, among other enact-
ments, passed the bill of rights,
as compelled to confirm
the peace with France
and determined to
on himself and less
people; but it was ne-
cessary to raise supplies for
and he, unfortunately,

...sent, at
...ship-
...t-
...son, which he accepted, and was
...crowned at Soane, in 1661, where
...he was obliged to take the coro-
...nan. Cromwell, however, de-
...ed the Scotch at Dunbar, and
...himself at Worcester. In
...after this battle he lay
...ch branches of a
...bel wood, while
...eated them-
...After many
...various dis-
...to France. In
...ment of general
...ized; and with
...ss and infidelity
...a full tide. In 1666
...the princess of Portu-
...in he had no children,
...his various mistresses he
...a numerous offspring, who
...controlled. With the exception
...the sale of Dunkirk to supply
...extravagances, the acts of
...Charles's reign can scarcely be
...considered as his own, and belong
...rather to the history of his coun-
...try. He lived in the unbridled
...indulgence of his appetites, eating
...and interfering little in matters of
...state-policy. The few he meddled
...with were of an odious nature.
...Charles died of an apoplectic fit,
...February 6, 1685, and by receiving.
...In his last moments, the sacrament
...from a popish priest, proved that
...he had lived a hypocrite as well
...as a libertine.

...the
...the,
...and
...ments
...success,
...Naseby,
...and on the
...thmentary
...threw himself
...of the Scots,
...the parliament.
...had divided from
...conveyed him to
...it, whence he es-
...an intention to quit
...m, but was detained by
...Hammond. On a proposal
...to him at that place, he of-
...to grant all the terms de-
...ded for his release, except the
...tion of episcopacy. He was in
...consequence arraigned for high-
...treason, tried, and condemned.
...His conduct during the trial was a
...noble pattern of Christian meek-
...ness and firmness, and this he re-
...tained to his death. He was be-
...headed at Whitehall, on the 30th
...of January, 1686.

CHARLES II., king of England,
was born in 1630, and was at the
Hague when his father was murder-
ed. The Scots, who had betrayed
the father, sent an invitation to the

CHARLES GUSTAVUS X., king
of Sweden, ascended the throne on
the abdication of Christians, in
1654. He obtained over the Poles
the famous victory of Warsaw, be-
sides taking a great number of im-
portant places. The Poles, calling
to their assistance Muscovy, Hol-
land, and Denmark, obliged the
king of Sweden to conclude a peace;
but the war breaking out again,
Charles took Cronenburg, and laid
siege to Copenhagen, but his navy
being defeated he was obliged to
return home, and died in 1690.

CHARLES XI. of Sweden, was born
in 1655. On his accession a peace
was concluded with Denmark, but
in 1674, in the war with that power,
he lost several places, which were
restored at the peace of Nimegue.
He married the sister of the king
of Denmark, and died in 1697.

* Not most cruelly murdered.

HISTORY.

concentrating in himself the whole empire of the civilized world, by a marriage with Irene, the empress of the East; a princess who had made herself famous by her courage and her crimes; who had caused her only son to be put to death, after having first put out his eyes; and who would willingly have destroyed Charlemagne. This alliance every way disgraceful to the monarch, (for he had repudiated his former wife, the princess of Lombardy, without assigning any reason,) was only prevented by a revolution, which deprived Irene of all her vast possessions, and Charlemagne of all prospect of becoming emperor of the East. He had no capital, being almost constantly either at war or on a journey; but Aix-la-Chapelle was his ordinary residence, where he gave audiences with the greatest pomp to the ambassadors of the caliphs and those of Constantinople. He divided during his life-time his territories among his sons, who being, except Lewis (le debonnaire) severally deceased, Charlemagne associated him in the empire, obliging him to receive the imperial crown at the altar. Italy, however, was retained in the possession of Bernard, his grandson. Charlemagne died in 814, with the reputation of having been an emperor, as happy as Augustus, as warlike as Adrian; but not like the Trajans or Antoninuses, to whom no sovereign was ever worthy to be compared.

CHARLEROY, or CHARLEROI, a town and fortress of the Netherlands, founded by Charles, king of Spain, in 1666, as a barrier against Louis XIV. It soon fell into his hands, but was restored to Spain in 1678. In 1693 it was re-taken by the French, but confirmed to Austria by the treaty of Utrecht. It was again taken by the French in 1746, but restored in 1748; and in June, 1794, it was taken after the battle of Fleurus, and remained annexed to France till 1814. In 1815 Bonaparte chose this place for the first point of attack on the Russians, who were driven from it, June 15, and compelled to retreat to Fleurus.

CHARLES I., king of England, an unfortunate monarch, whose disasters were prepared for him by his predecessors, and by the increasing spirit of liberty, precipitated and increased by the alternate obstinacy and sckleness of his disposition. His accession, in 1625, was marked with that spirit of opposition which characterized his reign. His parliaments lessened their grants, and enhanced their grievances; and Charles, weakly endeavouring to elude the evil, had recourse to the temporary expedients of loans, benevolences, and ship-money. The puritan faction, and the assertors of liberty of every sort, formed themselves into a compact; their designs included the destruction of every restraint, whether of the monarch or the priest. They had already impeached the minister, and his unsuccessful attempt to relieve Rochelle, in 1627, increased their enmity. An individual fanatic disappointed them of their design, in bringing him to public execution; but this seemed only to exasperate them the more against the king. Charles, blinded by the monarchical doctrines of the turbulent James, his father especially, never courted the public affection; and this exemption, acted upon with all the resolution his imbecile energies were capable of, paved the way for that total loss of the people's sympathy and regard which they afterwards evinced. The spirit of dissatisfaction, upon a new exertion of the prerogative, went vigorously to work; the real intent of the benevolence-money was disclosed, and the odious ship-money had its purpose equally described. Charles unceasingly felt the decline of his popularity; but he relied upon his parliaments, and hastily called them together. Among them, however, a new and better spirit had arisen; they staunchly, among other enactments, passed the bill of rights, and he was compelled to confirm it. He made peace with France and Spain, and determined to rely more on himself and less on his people; but it was necessary to raise supplies for the state, and he, unfortunately,

had recourse to the expedient, at that time lawful, of levying ship-money. This, and the king's attempt to force the liturgy on the Scotch, were the two causes of all his after-troubles. Hampden opposed the former, and the cavaliers the latter, and Charles was compelled to submit to both. The king perplexed, called and dissolved his parliaments without effect; and, at last, was driven to call the long parliament of 1640. This impeached the earl of Strafford and archbishop Laud, and declared all modes of raising money illegal but by parliament. The fury of the puritanic faction now rose against the church, and the bishops, protesting against their measures, were impeached, and committed. The king, regardless of these palpable changes in the course of public feeling, went himself to the house, and demanded the persons of five members, whom he impeached of treason. This was the signal of insurrection. The city militia mustered on their side, and the king erected his standard at Nottingham. Many engagements took place, with various success, but on the king's defeat at Naseby, he retired to Oxford, and on the approach of the parliamentary general, Fairfax, threw himself on the protection of the Scots, who sold him to the parliament. The army, who had divided from the parliament, conveyed him to Hampton-court, whence he escaped, with an intention to quit the kingdom, but was detained by colonel Hammond. On a proposal made to him at that place, he offered to grant all the terms demanded for his release, except the abolition of episcopacy. He was in consequence arraigned for high-treason, tried, and condemned. His conduct during the trial was a noble pattern of Christian meekness and firmness, and this he retained to his death. He was beheaded at Whitehall, on the 30th of January, 1649.

CHARLES II., king of England, was born in 1630, and was at the Hague when his father was murdered. The Scots, who had betrayed the father, sent an invitation to the

son, which he accepted, and was crowned at Seone, in 1651, where he was obliged to take the covenant. Cromwell, however, defeated the Scotch at Dunbar, and Charles himself at Worcester. In his escape after this battle he lay hid in the thick branches of a large oak in Boscobel wood, while his pursuers actually seated themselves under the tree. After many journeyings, and in various disguises, he escaped to France. In 1660, by the management of general Monk, he was restored; and with him licentiousness and infidelity returned with a full tide. In 1663 he married the princess of Portugal, by whom he had no children, but by his various mistresses he had a numerous offspring, who were ennobled. With the exception of the sale of Dunkirk to supply his extravagances, the acts of Charles's reign can scarcely be considered as his own, and belong rather to the history of his country. He lived in the unbridled indulgence of his appetites, caring and interfering little in matters of state-policy. The few he meddled with were of an odious nature. Charles died of an apopleptic fit, February 6, 1685, and by receiving, in his last moments, the sacrament from a popish priest, proved that he had lived a hypocrite as well as a libertine.

CHARLES GUSTAVUS X., king of Sweden, ascended the throne on the abdication of Christiansa, in 1654. He obtained over the Poles the famous victory of Warsaw, besides taking a great number of important places. The Poles, calling to their assistance Muscovy, Holland, and Denmark, obliged the king of Sweden to conclude a peace; but the war breaking out again, Charles took Cronenburg, and laid siege to Copenhagen, but his navy being defeated he was obliged to return home, and died in 1660.—CHARLES XI. of Sweden, was born in 1655. On his accession a peace was concluded with Denmark, but in 1674, in the war with that power, he lost several places, which were restored at the peace of Nimeguen. He married the sister of the king of Denmark, and died in 1697.

x N^o most cruelly murdered.

CHARLES XII., son and successor of the preceding, was born in 1682. He came to the throne at the age of fifteen, and, at his coronation, snatched the crown from the hands of the archbishop of Upsal, and put it on his own head. The commencement of his reign, however, gave no splendid proof of genius or talent. But, on the formation of a confederacy against him by Russia, Denmark, and Poland, he seemed to arouse from his slumber. He himself gave the casting-vote in the council for the most vigorous prosecution of hostilities, and immediately prepared to carry them into effect. He renounced at once even the limited enjoyment of wine or women, and bent all his energies to support the character he had marked for himself. Of the confederate powers, he attacked each in turn, beginning with Denmark, which produced a peace with that power. In 1700 he obtained an astonishing victory over the Russians at Narva, and though his force consisted only of 8,000, he attacked them in their entrenchments, slew 30,000, and took 20,000 prisoners. His next enterprise was against Poland, and after several battles he dethroned Augustus and placed Stanislaus upon the throne. He obtained some signal advantages over Peter the Great, but at length experienced a terrible defeat at Pultowa, in 1709. Almost all his troops were either slain or taken prisoners; he was himself wounded in the leg, and was carried off in a litter. Charles sought an asylum in Turkey, where he was entertained by the grand-seignior, who provided for him a residence at Bender. He availed himself of his asylum to persuade the grand-seignior to enter into war with Russia, and employed much money, much time, and many menaces to induce it. His conduct was, at length, so violent, that he was ordered to leave the Turkish territories. This he refused. The grand seignior then directed that he should be forced away; but Charles, with his retinue, formed an encampment, and resisted the attack of the janissaries till superiority of numbers

obliged him to take shelter in his house, which he defended with great spirit, and did not yield till fire was set to the premises. He then sallied out sword in hand, but being entangled by his long spurs, he fell and was taken prisoner. He was kept as a prisoner ten months, and allowed to return to his dominions. In 1716 he invaded Norway, but after penetrating to Christiania, was obliged to return to Sweden. He resumed the attack in the winter of 1718, but was killed by a cannon-shot at the siege of Frederickshall, December 11, aged thirty-six years, having reigned twenty-one. Charles was liberal, active, and firm, but rash, obstinate, and cruel. At the battle of Narva he had several horses shot under him, and as he was mounting upon a fresh one, he said, "These people find me exercise." When he was besieged at Stralsund, a bomb fell into the house while he was dictating to his secretary, who immediately dropped the pen in a fright. "What is the matter?" said Charles. "Oh, the bomb!" answered he. "The bomb," said the king, "what have we to do with the bomb? go on." And when struck by the ball which caused his death, he instinctively put his hand toward his sword.

CHARLES I., king of Naples and Sicily, born in 1226, was the son of Lewis VIII. of France. He married the daughter of the count of Provence, and thereby became his successor, and added, also, the countries of Anjou and Maine. He was taken prisoner, with his brother Lewis, in Egypt, in 1248. On his return he defeated Manfred, the usurper of the Sicilian crown, and assumed the title of king of Naples. He also defeated his rival, Conradin, duke of Swabia, and took him and the duke of Austria prisoners. Charles, on this occasion, brought endless infamy upon his name, by causing his royal captives to be put to death, at Naples, on a public scaffold. After this he laid the prince of Tunis under tribute, and destroyed the Ghibelines. In 1276, he gained the title of king of Jerusalem, and me-

dictated an expedition against Constantinople. But his arbitrary conduct occasioned a general insurrection in Sicily, where 8,000 of the French were massacred on Easter-Monday, 1282. This massacre is known by the name of the "Sicilian vespers," the bell for evening prayers being the signal of revolt. The Sicilians then chose Peter of Arragon for their king. Charles died in 1285.—**CHARLES II.** the son and successor of the above, was, at the time of his father's death, a prisoner in the hands of the Sicilians, who would have put him to death but for the intercession of Constantia, queen of Arragon. He recovered his liberty in 1286, on condition of renouncing his claim to the Sicilian crown; but being absolved from his treaty by the pope, he made several attempts to get possession of Sicily, which failed. He died in 1309.—**CHARLES III.**, king of Naples, which he obtained from the pope, on the excommunication of Joan, in 1309. He put Joan to death, and afterwards quarrelled with the pope, who excommunicated him in his turn. Charles next claimed the crown of Hungary, but was slain in the attempt, in 1386, aged forty-one.—**CHARLES II.**, king of Navarre, called "The Bad," succeeded his mother at the age of eighteen. He murdered the constable, Charles of Angoulême, for which, John, king of France, caused him to be arrested, but soon after gave him his liberty. He seduced the dauphin, afterwards Charles V., to rebel against his father, but the plot was discovered, and the dauphin gained his pardon by betraying the king of Navarre into the hands of his father, who confined him in the castle of Arleux. Charles escaped from prison, and joined the English on their invasion of France; but in 1356, he made peace with the dauphin, who had succeeded his father, John. He entered into a fresh alliance with the English, and was accused of employing a person to poison Charles VI. He died in 1387.—**CHARLES MARTEL**, mayor of the palace under Chilperic and Thierry IV., kings of France. He

gained many victories, the principal of which was over the Saracen general, Abdalrahman, in 732. On the death of Thierry, in 737, no successor was appointed, and Charles conducted the government as duke of the Franks. He died in 741, and left his dominions between his sons Carloman and Pepin; the latter of whom became the first king of France of the Carlovgian race, which name was taken from the founder, Charles Martel.—**CHARLES, DUKE OF BURGUNDY**, surnamed the "Rash," was the son of Philip the Good, and born in 1433. There were constant wars between him and Louis XI., king of France, who instigated Charles's subjects, the Liegeois, to revolt against him. The duke made the king prisoner, and compelled him to enter into a treaty on terms that were dictated to him. Charles then seized on Guelderland and Zutphen. He afterwards invaded Switzerland, but his army was put to the rout and his baggage taken. He collected another army, but was again defeated. He was slain while besieging Nanci, in 1477.—**CHARLES IV.**, the third son of Philip the Fair, obtained the crown of France in 1322. He recovered the province of Guienne to the latter country. He died in 1328, aged thirty-four.—**CHARLES V.**, called the Wise, was the eldest son of John, and the first prince who bore the title of dauphin. He succeeded to the crown on the death of his brother in 1364. He restored the commerce and agriculture of his country, and gained several advantages over the English. He died in 1380, in the forty-third year of his age.—**CHARLES VI.** the Well-beloved, son of the above, was born in 1368, and crowned in 1380. In his reign, Orleans and Burgundy contending for the succession, Henry V. king of England took advantage of these disputes to invade France, which he conquered, and disinherited the dauphin. Charles died in 1422.—**CHARLES VII.**, called the Victorious, because he regained his kingdom from the English. He was crowned in 1422, and by his activity drove out the invaders

HISTORY.

from all their possessions, except Galata. He died in 1441.—**CHARLES VIII.**, the Affable, son of Louis XI. ascended the throne in 1483, aged thirteen. He conquered Naples, and, in 1495, obtained a great victory over the Italians, though their army was five times as large as his own. He died in 1498.—**CHARLES IX.** was born in 1550, and succeeded in 1560, under his mother, Catherine of Medicis, who so abused her trust, that the protestants revolted, and a civil war ensued, in which the insurgents were unsuccessful; and the massacre of Paris ensued. It is said that he repented of this horrid crime on his death-bed, in 1574.—**CHARLES the Gross**, emperor of Germany. He was elected in 881, and being deposed by Arnoul, died of grief and poverty at Constance, in 888.—**CHARLES IV.**, emperor of Germany, was the son of the John of Luxemburg, and grandson of the emperor Henry VII. He ascended the throne in 1347. In his reign the golden bull was given at the diet of Nuremberg, in 1356, which established the Germanic constitution. Charles died in 1378. He was a learned man, and a great encourager of letters.—**CHARLES V.**, emperor of Germany, and king of Spain, was born at Ghent, in 1500. He succeeded to the kingdom of Spain in 1516, and to the empire on the death of Maximilian, in 1519. Francis I. of France disputed with him the latter title, which occasioned a violent war in 1521. Charles made a league with Henry VIII. of England, and after several important actions, took Francis prisoner at the battle of Pavia. A peace being concluded in 1529, Charles turned his arms against Africa, where he took Goletta, vanquished Barbarossa, entered Tunis, and re-established Muly-Hassan on the throne. Soon after this he re-commenced hostilities against France, ravaging Champagne and Picardy, till he was at length obliged to retire, and peace was restored in 1536. In 1541 he attempted the conquest of Algiers, but his fleet was dispersed in a hurricane, and the emperor was obliged to return in disgrace.

He again leagued with England against France, but fortune was not so favourable to him as she had formerly been, and he was glad to enter into a treaty in 1548. The protestant princes of Germany confederated against him, and obtained liberty of conscience for those of their religion. In 1556 he resigned the crown to his son Philip, and went into a monastery in Escramadura, where he employed the remainder of his days in religious exercises, mechanical pursuits, and gardening. He died in 1558.—**CHARLES VI.**, the fifth son of the emperor Leopold, was born in 1685, declared king of Spain, by his father, in 1703; and crowned emperor in 1711. He made peace with France in 1714, and, in the war against the Turks in the year following, obtained several victories, took Belgrade, and forced the Turks into a peace. He also entered into an alliance with France, Great Britain, and Holland, against Spain; by which Sardinia and Sicily were wrested from that power, and the former erected into a monarchy in the person of the duke of Savoy. Afterwards, in a war with his allies, he lost Naples and Sicily, and at the close of his reign was unfortunate in his war with Turkey. Charles died in 1740.—**CHARLES VII.** emperor of Germany. He was elector of Bavaria, and owed his crown to France and Prussia, in 1742; but found a powerful rival in Maria Theresa, queen of Hungary, whose right was supported by Great Britain and Sardinia. He died in 1745.—**CHARLES (Emanuel)**, duke of Savoy, surnamed the "Great," was born in 1698. Though of a weak constitution, he was of an enterprising spirit, and, taking advantage of the internal commotions in France, in the reign of Henry III. he seized part of Dauphiné and Provence; and on the death of that monarch he aspired to the crown, but was disappointed. A war broke out, and the French troops took possession of part of Savoy. By the mediation of the pope, however, peace was concluded. The duke made a treacherous attempt to seize Geneva,

but his troops were repulsed, and the few prisoners taken were hung up by the Genevans as robbers. On the death of Francis, duke of Mantua, in 1613, this restless prince laid claim to the succession, but was obliged to relinquish it. The French persuaded him to turn his arms against Genoa, and he gained some advantages, but the interference of Spain effected a peace. He aspired to the imperial crown, and made an attempt on the duchy of Montserrat, which involved him in a war with France and Spain. The loss of Pignerol, in 1630, is supposed to have occasioned his death.—CHARLES (Emanuel II.), duke of Savoy, succeeded in 1638, being only four years old. During his minority the Spaniards invaded his territories, and took several places, but the interference of Louis XIII. obliged them to make restitution. He penetrated the Monte Viso with an arched road, 500 geometrical paces long, and built several fine structures at Turin. He was at last involved in a civil war with his protestant subjects of the Vaudois, who revolted through the persecutions which they endured. He died in 1675.—CHARLES (Emanuel III.), duke of Savoy, and king of Sardinia, succeeded in 1730. Joined to France and Spain, he defeated Austria, and considerably enlarged his dominions. In 1742, he assisted the queen of Hungary, and obtained several advantages. He died in 1773.—CHARLES (Edward), of the Stuart family, commonly called the "Pretender," was the grandson of James II. and born at Rome in 1720. In 1745 he landed in Scotland, and published a manifesto, exhibiting the claims of his father to the English throne. He was joined by several of the highlanders, and entering Edinburgh, he caused his father to be proclaimed. He defeated general Cope at Preston-Pans, and returned to Edinburgh, wasting his time in an idle parade of royalty. Being, however, joined by several discontented chiefs, he marched as far as Manchester, when hearing that the king was about to take the field, he returned, to

Scotland, and defeated the English forces under Hawley, at Falkirk. In the mean time, the duke of Cumberland advanced to Edinburgh, and from thence to Aberdeen, the Pretender retreating before him. At last the two armies met at Culloden, when, after an obstinate conflict, in which the Highlanders displayed signal courage, the royal army was successful, and the other fled, leaving 3,000 of their number dead on the field. Charles, after wandering about in different disguises, chiefly among the Hebrides, effected his escape to France. Thus ended all hopes of this unfortunate family. He died at Florence, in 1788.

CHATEL (Tanneguy du), a French general: he distinguished himself by an expedition against England, and by his defeat of Ladislaus the usurper of the two Sicilies. He was at the battle of Agincourt, and when Paris was surprised by the Burgundian faction, he saved the dauphin, and afterwards effected a peace between the two princes. Yet he advised the dauphin to assassinate the duke of Burgundy in 1819. When the dauphin ascended the throne, he employed Chatel in several honourable missions. He died in 1449.

CHATHAM, (Earl of), was the son of Robert Pitt, esq. of Boconnock, in Cornwall, and born November 15, 1708. On quitting the university he went into the army as cornet, but soon quitted the military life; and, in 1735, obtained a seat in parliament for Old Sarum. His eloquence was first displayed at the Spanish convention in 1738; and, in a short time, sir Robert Walpole found him the greatest opponent he had ever encountered. For this the dowager-duchess of Marlborough left Mr. Pitt 10,000*l*. In 1746 he was made joint vice-treasurer of Ireland, and the same year paymaster-general of the army. In 1755 he resigned his places; but the year following he was appointed secretary-of-state for the southern department. In this post, however, he did not remain long, on account of some difference with the king; but such

HISTORY.

was his popularity, that his majesty found it necessary to recall him; and, in 1757, he became prime-minister, in which situation he gave a new turn to affairs, and by the vigour of his measures defeated the power of France in Europe, Asia, and America. In the midst of this glory, George II. died, and Mr. Pitt resigned the helm to lord Bute; when his lady was created a peeress, and himself was rewarded with a pension. In 1766 he was created a peer, by the title of earl of Chatham, and at the same time was made lord-privy-seal, which place he resigned two years afterwards. During the American war he opposed ministers, yet he was no friend to the independency of the colonies, and in a speech on that subject, April 8, 1778, exerted himself so energetically, as to fall exhausted into the arms of those who surrounded him. He died on the eleventh of the following month. A public funeral and monument were voted by parliament; and a pension of 4,000*l.* a-year was settled upon the family.

CHAUVELIN, the accredited ambassador from Louis XVI. to the court of Great Britain. He was ordered to quit the kingdom at the breaking out of the French revolution.

CHEDORLAOMER, king of the Elamites, and one of the four who were confederated against the five kings of the Pentapolis of Sodom, and who, having defeated them, and taken much spoil, were pursued and dispersed by Abraham, A. M. 2002, and B. C. 1912.

CHERBOURG, or **CHERBURG**, an important sea-port of France, in Lower Normandy, taken by Henry V. in 1418, and between which port and cape La Hogue, the celebrated naval engagement between the French and the English took place in 1692.

CHERONEA, a city of Boeotia, near unto Lebadia. Nothing has so much kept up the memory of it, as the famous battle fought in its vicinity, wherein Philip of Macedon encountered the confederate Greeks, 338 B. C. It gave a splendid victory to Philip, and, in its

consequences, put an end to the Grecian glory. Their liberty, says an ancient historian, (Quintius Curtius) with their large dominion, won with so many difficulties, continued for so many ages, and so often defended, against the greatest kings, was lost in a moment, and lost for ever. Philip had offered honorable conditions of peace, which Phocion, their valiant leader, advised the Athenians to accept; but, dissuaded by Demosthenes, they rejected his wise counsel. The eloquence of their orator, whom they sent to seek the aid of the Thebans, (and he obtained it), cost them dear. Philip was not long in resolving upon an enterprise against the Athenians, and their allies. Commanding his army, therefore, to march, he suddenly entered Boeotia, with 30,000 footmen and 2000 horse.

Philip had the best soldiers, and most experienced captains; and he himself had become very expert in military discipline, from having fought, in many places, and done many notable exploits of arms. Chares and Lycicles, the only generals the Athenians had, (Phocion was, at that time, in disgrace, and not employed) were too weak to undertake so great a charge, being much inferior to many of Philip's officers.

At day-break, both armies were arranged, in battalia, one against the other, in the plain of Chæroneæ. Philip placed his young son, Alexander, attended by some of his best officers, in one of the points or wings of his army, and himself in the other, with the most valiant men, giving directions according to time and place. The fight began very sharply, and many were slain on both sides, so that it could not be discerned which side had the advantage, till Alexander, shewing proofs of superior courage, and many others following his example, broke into the main body of the enemies, and there ensued great and cruel slaughter. It was Alexander that first gave charge upon the sacred band of the Thebans. Phi-

lip, on his side, set upon them that withstood him so fiercely that he overthrew and made them fly. Above a thousand Athenians were slain, and 2000 taken prisoners, and pretty near a like number of the Boeotians were killed or taken. Philip caused a token of triumph to be set up on the field-of-battle.

CHESTSEY, a town in Surrey, formerly the residence of the Sax-on kings, and supposed to be the spot where Julius Cæsar led his army across the Thames, and was opposed by a palisade in the river and on its banks.

CHESAPEAKE, American frigate, captured by the Shannon, commanded by captain Broke, on the 1st of June, 1813, who, with the Shannon alone, drew up before the harbour of Boston, in a posture of defiance. Captain Laurence of the Chesapeake accepted the challenge, and put to sea, while crowds of the inhabitants lined the beach to witness the approaching conflict. The interval of suspense was not long; the two vessels came almost immediately in contact, and the volumes of smoke which obscured them, gave hopes to the spectators on shore, that the contest would be decided in their favour by superior weight of metal. At this critical moment, captain Broke, observing that the enemy flinched from their guns, gave orders to board. In less than ten minutes the whole of the British crew were on the decks of the Chesapeake; and in two minutes more, the enemy were driven, sword-in-hand, from every point. The American flag was hauled down, and the British union floated over it in triumph. In another minute they ceased firing from below, and called for quarter. The whole service was performed in fifteen minutes from its commencement.

CHILDEBERT I. king of France, the son of Clovis, commenced his reign in 511. He joined his brothers Clodomir and Clotaire, against Sigismund, king of Burgundy, whom they defeated. Afterwards Childebert and Clotaire turned their arms against Spain, wherein they were unsuccessful. He died at Paris in 558.—**CHILDE-**

BERT II. the son of Sigebert and Brunehaut, succeeded his father in 575. On the death of his uncle Chilperic, king of Soissons, he obtained the kingdoms of Orleans and Burgundy, and died of poison in 596, aged twenty-six.—**CHILDEBERT III.** called the Just, came to the crown in 675, aged twelve, and was governed by Pepin, mayor of the palace, who took upon him all the state of royalty. He died in 711.

CHILDERIC I. king of France, succeeded his father Merovinus in 486, and was deposed the year following for his bad conduct, and constrained to retire to Thuringia; but he was recalled in 463, and died in 481.—**CHILDERIC II.** son of Clovis II. ascended the throne in 1670, by the death of Clotaire III. his brother. He disgraced himself by his debaucheries and cruelties, and was assassinated with his queen and son, in 675.—**CHILDERIC III.** called the Ideot, was proclaimed in 742, and deposed in 752, by Pepin, who confined him in a monastery, where he died.

CHILI, a country of South America. In 1450, Upanqui, governor of Peru, determined upon attempting the conquest of Chili. His army was, however, after subduing the four northern tribes, interrupted in its career by the Promancian tribe, and defeated in a sanguinary battle. The Peruvians remained masters of the country as far as the Rapel until 1535, when the Spaniards visited it. The Spaniards under Almagro, in attempting its conquest, were defeated with loss, and returned to Peru, in 1538. Two years afterwards Pedro de Valdivia was dispatched by Pizarro, for the purpose of subjugation and settlement. Valdivia overcame all resistance to his progress, and pierced, with little loss, into the country of Mapocho. Having settled his power in the northern provinces of Chili, Valdivia turned his arms against the southern, with the like success. He founded several cities in the north and south. While he was engaged at Santiago, Caupolicar, the chief of the Araucanians, advanced against him, and the two ar-

HISTORY.

ales met on the 3d of December, 1653. A fierce contest ensued, in which the Spaniards, and their allies the Promanoians, were cut to pieces. Valdivia himself was taken prisoner, and barbarously murdered. In 1557, and for many years afterwards, an unceasing warfare was maintained between the Spaniards and Araucanians. In 1598 a general insurrection of the Araucanians took place; and with the assistance of their allies, they put to death every Spaniard whom they found outside of the forts. To add to the misfortunes of the Spaniards, the Dutch landed on the Chiloe islands, plundered Chiloe, and put the Spanish garrison to the sword. In 1641 a treaty of peace was concluded between the Spaniards and the Araucanians, which lasted until 1655; when hostilities again broke out, and continued for ten years. From the end of this period to the beginning of the eighteenth century, the history of Chili is rather barren. The general conspiracy formed by the nations from the borders of Peru to the river Biobo, in 1722, happily miscarried in its effects. Chili appears to have enjoyed tranquillity during the latter part of the eighteenth century. In 1809 a revolutionary movement took place, and the party which espoused the cause of independence was, at first, successful; but in 1814, nearly the whole district was subdued by a royalist army from Peru. Chili remained under the controul of the royalists until 1817, when general San Martin, with a body of troops from Buenos Ayres, entered the country, and being joined by the people generally, defeated the royalists in several engagements. The independence of the country was finally achieved by the victory obtained at the decisive battle of Maypa, in April, 1818. A free constitution has been established, and will, probably, be maintained. The arms of Chili have recently been directed against Peru with signal success; and the fall of Lima attests the skill and bravery of San Martin, and his republican army.

CHILOW, a village of Ceylon,

with a small fort, which, commanded by a British officer, stood siege against the second minister of Candia, with 3,000 troops.

CHILPERIC I. king of France, was the youngest son of Clotaire I. on whose death he seized the throne, but was deposed in 562, and contented himself with the kingdom of Soissons. On the death of Charibet he succeeded to the kingdom of Paris. He attached himself to a woman named Fredegonde, who murdered queen Galswintha, which produced a war between Chilperic and Siegbert, king of Austrasia. Chilperic put to death his son Meroveus; Fredegonde caused his other son, Clovis, to be murdered. These domestic evils, at length, made a considerable impression on the king's mind, and he became religious. He was assassinated in 584.—**CHILPERIC II.** the supposed son of Childeric II. On the death of Dagobert he was taken from a monastery, where he acted in a mental capacity, and was placed by the mayor of Paris at the head of an army against Charles Martel. He was for some time successful, but was, at last, obliged to fly for shelter to the duke of Aquitaine, who delivered him to Charles. He died at Noyen, in 720.

CHINA is bounded on the north by Tartary, from which the famous Chinese wall separates it; on the east by the eastern or Chinese ocean; on the south by the Indian sea; and on the west by an extensive and sandy desert, and a long ridge of inaccessible mountains which divide it from Western Tartary, and the kingdoms of Thibet. Without going back to that remote antiquity to which the Chinese historians pretend, it will be sufficient to credit records of this empire from 2000 years B. C. Prior to that period, five dynasties are computed, at the head of the first of which was Yuta. Ching-tang was the founder of the second dynasty, named Chang, B. C. 1767; and was celebrated for his wisdom, moderation, and singular merit. This dynasty, after the reign of twenty-eight emperors, was terminated, like the former,

by the vices of him who last filled the throne. The third dynasty, named Chew or Cheva, B. C. 1123, consisted of thirty-five emperors, some of whom exhibited virtues deserving of high applause, and the faults and vices of others excited the vengeance of the people. During the reign of Ching, the second emperor of the fourth dynasty, B. C. 286, called Tsin, or Gao, the great wall was built. Being elated with his own exploits, he formed a design of making posterity believe that he was the first Chinese emperor that ever sat on the throne; and, for this purpose, he ordered all the historical books which contained the fundamental records and laws of the ancient governments to be burnt, and 400 of the learned to be put to death, for having attempted to save some of the proscribed volumes. The chieftain of a banditti, named Lieu-pang, dethroned the last emperor of the fourth dynasty, and founded the fifth, called Han, in his own person, B. C. 207. He proved himself worthy of the throne, by his moderation and clemency, and was one of the few emperors who governed for themselves. Under the rest, factions were formed, one of which, known by the appellation of the yellow-caps, made itself master of the empire, which ended in its dismemberment. The sixth dynasty was begun by a prince descended from Lieu-pang, A. D. 220, and ended with his grandson, who, ardent and courageous, sustained for some time his father's tottering throne, which was attacked from every quarter. At length, seeing affairs tend to a most fatal crisis, the emperor, deficient in courage, still refused to fight; and the young prince, afflicted at his cowardice, retired to the hall of his ancestors, slew his wife, and then himself. The emperor tamely surrendered to Song-chau, his rival, who granted him a petty sovereignty. Shi-tau-vu-ti, the son of the rebel Song-chau, was the founder of the seventh dynasty, A. D. 265, and preserved by his arms the empire which they had acquired him. After a series of fifteen emperors,

during whose reign Nankin became the capital of the empire, this dynasty terminated in Nagan-Ti, an indolent prince, unworthy of a crown. In his reign, a man named Lyew-Hu, whose employment was that of selling shoes, enlisted as a soldier, became a general, and at last usurped the throne. His race consisted of eight emperors. Kanti, the founder of the ninth dynasty, obtained the throne by the murder of two princes, A. D. 479, but did not long enjoy the fruits of his wickedness. He was more remarkable for his learning than his military exploits. His son enacted the famous law, which prohibited the mandarins remaining more than three years in the same place. This dynasty did not produce more than five emperors. The tenth dynasty comprehends only four monarchs, beginning with Syau-ywen, the prime-minister and assassin of the last prince, A. D. 502. He was active, industrious, vigilant, and expeditious. The last emperor but one attached himself to the religion of Fo, and while his attention was absorbed in the mysteries taught by his disciples, his prime-minister attacked him in his capital. At length the sovereign awoke from his religious reveries, took up arms, marched round the ramparts, examined the position of the enemy, and exclaimed, "All is lost, it is over with the sciences." He then set fire to his library, which consisted of 140,000 volumes, and surrendered to the conqueror, who put to death both him and his son. Like his predecessor, the founder of the eleventh dynasty, A. D. 557, was extremely attached to the bonzes. His race produced only five emperors, the last of whom was dethroned by the prime-minister of the western empire. The three emperors who composed the twelfth dynasty, commencing A. D. 589, performed great actions, and are renowned in history. The first, who had no pretensions to learning, was endowed with a solid and penetrating mind. He loved his people, and built public granaries, which were annually filled with rice and corn by the

HI STORY.

opulent, to be distributed to the poor in times of scarcity. Kong-ti was dethroned by Si-gwen, A. D. 617, the same year in which he was crowned. The son of this man, on arriving at the emperor's palace, was astonished at its magnificence, and said, "No: such a stately edifice must not be suffered to stand any longer, as it is good for nothing but to corrupt the heart of a prince, and render him effeminate." After this reflection he ordered the whole building to be set on fire, and reduced to ashes. Tai-tsung, his son, was one of the greatest and wisest princes that ever graced the Chinese throne. Tai-tsu, the successor and assassin of the twentieth sovereign of this race, established the fourteenth dynasty, A. D. 907, but did not long enjoy the reward of his crime. He was slain by his eldest son, who was himself killed by his brother Moti. Anarchy raging in the empire, an able general, supported by a powerful party, attacked Moti, who being vanquished, committed suicide, and his family became extinct. Chwang-tsung, the victorious general, assumed the character of emperor, and founded the fifteenth dynasty, A. D. 922. During his reign, block-printing was invented among the Chinese. This dynasty produced four emperors, the last of whom, being pursued by the murderers of his father, burned himself, together with his family. Of the emperors of the two succeeding dynasties, commencing A. D. 936, nothing of importance is recorded by historians, who narrate little more than the accession to the throne, and death of the several sovereigns. Tai-tou was the founder of the eighteenth dynasty, A. D. 951, and had a profound veneration for Confucius, to whose tomb he paid a visit. His son, Chi-tsung imitated his virtues, and, when at the very summit of human grandeur, still retained a modest deportment. Tay-tsu, the founder of the nineteenth dynasty, A. D. 960, was worthy of his exaltation, and possessed all the qualities requisite to render a state happy and flourishing. Under Ching-tsung, the third

emperor of the dynasty, the number of persons employed in cultivating the land was computed at about 22,000,000. Under Li-tsu, the fourteenth emperor, who was himself by no means warlike, his generals expelled the eastern Tartars, who retreated nearly into their own territory, but who returned, and conquered China, which they still possess. Shi-tsu, founder of the twentieth dynasty, A. D. 1279, though a Tartar, and the first foreign prince that ever reigned over the Chinese, effectually reconciled them to his government, and even endeared himself to them by observing their ancient laws and customs, by his equity and justice. His successors, till the ninth, in whom terminated the race, established the religion of Fo in China. One of them invited the grand lama from Thibet, whom he received with the most extraordinary ceremonies: and with the lamas entered also magic, dancing-girls, and debauchery, which in the end perverted the wise government. A servant of the bonzes, named Chu, headed a revolt, and compelled the emperor Shunti to flee, with whom ended the Tartar dynasty of Ywen, which was succeeded by that of Ming, founded by Chu, who, ascending the throne, took the name of Tay-tsu, A. D. 1368. The piety of the new emperor equalled his wisdom and penetration. The catastrophe of this race, which ended with the thirteenth emperor, was announced and preceded by continual commotions during several reigns. The nobles of the empire called in against the insurgents, the Manchew or eastern Tartars, who again possessed themselves of the Chinese throne, which they still occupy. This memorable revolution happened in the year 1644. The nobility had imagined, that they should find the Tartars merely auxiliaries, who would assist them in placing a Chinese emperor on the throne; but when these allies had compelled the rebels to lay down their arms, they considered the empire as a fair reward for their labour. However, the Chinese, princes of the

blood did not tamely submit to this usurpation. Several competitors arose against Shun-chi, the first Manchew emperor; but, though hostilities were carried on with great obstinacy by sea and land, the vigour of the Tartars completely prevailed over every adversary. Shun-chi, conforming himself to the Chinese custom, taught his people to love as well as fear him; and they scarcely perceived that they had changed their ruler. Shun-chi was succeeded by his son Kang-hi, A. D. 1661, who was not only endowed with all the qualifications requisite to render him worthy of the imperial diadem, but was also very happy from the choice which his father had made of four noble guardians, who studied to preserve the empire in a peaceable and flourishing condition. Kang-hi was succeeded by his son Yong-shing, A. D. 1722, who ascended the throne at the age of forty-five, and who reigned with absolute power, and was greatly dreaded by his subjects. After the death of this emperor, A. D. 1735, the missionaries entertained great hopes of being restored to favour by his successor. But, from the latest authentic accounts, there appeared to be little reason to expect so fortunate an event. This prince was succeeded by Kien-Lung, who, after a happy, peaceable, and long reign of sixty-three years, died on the 11th of February, 1799. On his death, Ka-Hing, the fifth of the Tartar dynasty, ascended the throne. He died in 1820, and was succeeded by the present emperor.

CHINA, Dynasties of.—

The Hia Dynasty 2207 to 1767 B. C.
The Shang Dynasty 1767 to 1122
The Tchew Dynasty 1122 to 256
The Tsin Dynasty 256 to 257 B. C.
The Han Dynasty 207 B. C. to 220 A. D.

From 220 to 280, China was divided into three kingdoms, the Shohang Dynasty 220 to 263; that of the Goel in the north, 220 to 263; and that of the U in the south, 220 to 280.

The Tsin Dynasty 265 to 420
The U-tae Dynasties 420 to 589
The Sui Dynasty 589 to 617

The Tang Dynasty 617 to 907
The Hehu-tae Dynasty 907 to 908
The Song Dynasty 908 to 1279
The Mogul Khans 1279 to 1368
The Ming Dynasty 1368 to 1644
The Tsing Dynasty,

Shün-tchi 1644 to 1661

Kang-hi 1661 to 1722

Yong-tching 1722 to 1735

Kien-long 1735 to 1799

Ka-hing succeeded Kien-long 1799.

CHITORE, or CHATOR, a fortress of Hindostan, celebrated for its memorable siege in 1567, by the emperor Akbar. The emperor marched from Malwa early in 1567, to expel the Hindoo chief from Chitore. The ranah had garrisoned the fortress with 8000 troops: the emperor invested it, and set 5000 pioneers to work in throwing up trenches, &c. Having completed two batteries, and carried two mines under different bastions, he endeavoured to spring them both at once, but one of them going off before the other, blew up one of the bastions, and thus made a breach. Two thousand men now advanced, supposing both mines were sprung; they divided into two bodies to enter at both breaches, when the second mine exploded and killed 500 men, and about 1000 of the enemy, who were crowded on the bastion. The whole force now retreated; another mine was commenced, and the emperor one day perceiving the governor of the place, called for a long matchlock piece, lodged the iron-ball in the forehead of the governor, and laid him dead on the spot. The besieged, now reduced to despair, performed the ceremony of the *foaz*, by collecting a heap of combustibles, and having murdered their women and children, burnt their bodies with that of their commander, on the pile. The imperial army now advanced to the breach, which, being unoccupied, they entered the place without opposition. The day broke before a sufficient number of the Mohammedans had entered to make the attack; they were soon repulsed; and Akbar foreseeing the loss he must experience, ordered a distant fire to be kept up till he had introduced

HISTORY.

several war elephants, which he ordered to advance and trample the enemy to death. The enraged animals soon destroyed the whole of the garrison. Akbar, however, soon after made peace, and restored the fortress to the Hindoos.

CHOCZIM, a town and fortress of European Russia, celebrated for several victories gained by the Turks over the Poles, and for the great battle gained by prince Gallitzin, on the 20th of September, 1769, when it fell into the hands of the Russians.

CHRISTIANITY was propagated in Britain, in the fifth century; in Franconia and Flanders, in the seventh century; in Lombardy, Thuringia, and Hesse, in the eighth century; in Sweden, Denmark, Poland, and Russia, in the ninth century; in Hungary and Slavonia, in the tenth century; in Vandalia and Prussia, in the eleventh century; in Pomerania and Norway, in the twelfth century; in Livonia, Lithuania, and part of Tartary, in the thirteenth century; in Slavonia, part of Turkey, and the Canary isles, in the fourteenth century; in Africa, at Guinea, Angola, and Congo, in the fifteenth century; made great progress in Prussia, both in the Indies, and in China, by the Protestant faith, in the sixteenth century; reinstated in Greece, &c. &c. in the seventeenth century.

CHRISTIERN II. king of Denmark, called the Northern Nero, succeeded his father, John, in 1513. He laid claim to the throne of Sweden, and was crowned at Stockholm in 1520, when he caused all the Swedish nobility to be massacred. This rendered him so odious to the Swedes, that they forced him to return to Denmark, where he was deposed, on which he fled into Flanders. He afterwards attempted to recover his crown, but was taken prisoner, and died in 1559.

CHRISTIERN III. the nephew and successor of Frederic I. He came to the throne in 1534, and embraced Lutheranism, which he made the established religion. He died in 1558, aged 56.

CHRISTIERN IV. made war

against Sweden, and was elected chief of the Protestant league against the emperor, for the re-establishment of the prince palatine in 1625. He died in 1646, aged 71.

CHRISTIERN V. united with the princes of Germany, and declared war against the Swedes, but was unsuccessful. He died in 1699, aged 54.

CHRISTINA, queen of Sweden, was remarkable, though a queen, for acts and habits foreign to her sex, viz. learning, murder, and apostacy. Her conduct was so flagrant, that she found it difficult to procure an asylum with any state, after being excluded from her own. She died at Rome, in 1689.

CHRISTOPHE, chief of the government of Hayti. In 1806 an insurrection broke out there, in which Dessalines, the emperor, was killed by the negroes, whom he had provoked by his cruelty and oppression. His successor, Christophe, assumed the humbler title of chief of the government, and in that capacity opened the commerce of his dominions to neutral nations, by a proclamation distinguished for its liberal spirit, and enlightened views. In 1811, Christophe changed the republic into a monarchy, and declared himself king of Hayti. A short time before his coronation he created a nobility, consisting of princes, dukes, counts, and barons, to give greater splendour to the ceremony. He created a black legion of honour, called the order of St. Henri, and altered the name of his capital from Cape Francois to Cape Henri. His troops, at this time, amounted to about 10,000 men, all negroes, and his fleet consisted of one 44-gun frigate, nine sloops of war, and a number of schooners. On the 12th of December, 1820, Christophe, hearing that his troops had abandoned him, shot himself through the head, and the opposite party immediately proclaimed the government to be republican.

CICERO, (M. T.), born at Arpinum, was son of a Roman knight,

and lineally descended from the ancient kings of the Sabines. When he went to Sicily as quaestor, he behaved with great justice and moderation; and the Sicilians remembered with gratitude the eloquence of Cicero, their common patron, who had delivered them from the tyranny and avarice of Verres. After he had passed through the offices of edile and pretor, he stood a candidate for the consulship, A. U. C. 601; and the patricians and plebeians were equally anxious to raise him to that dignity, against the efforts and bribery of Catiline. His situation was critical, and required circumspection. Catiline, with many dissolute and desperate Romans, had conspired against their country, and combined to murder Cicero himself. In this dilemma Cicero, in full senate, accused Catiline of treason against the state; but as his evidence was not clear, his efforts were unavailing. He, however, stood upon his guard, and by the information of his friends, and the discovery of Fulvia, his life was saved from the dagger of Marcus and Cethegus, whom Catiline had sent to assassinate him. After this, Cicero commanded Catiline, in the senate, to leave the city; and this desperate conspirator marched out in triumph to meet the 20,000 men who were assembled to support his cause. The lieutenant of C. Anthony, the other consul, defeated them in Gaul; and Cicero, at Rome, punished the rest of the conspirators with death. This capital punishment, though inveighed against by J. Cæsar as too severe, was supported by the opinion of Lutatius Catulus and Cato, and confirmed by the whole senate. After this memorable deliverance, Cicero received the thanks of all the people, and was styled *The father of his country, and second founder of Rome*. The vehemence with which he had attacked Clodius, proved injurious to him; and when his enemy was made tribune, Cicero was banished from Rome, though 20,000 young men were supporters of his innocence.

He was not, however, deserted in his banishment. Wherever he went he was received with the highest marks of approbation and reverence; and when the faction had subsided at Rome, the whole senate and people were unanimous for his return. After sixteen months' absence, he entered Rome with universal satisfaction; and when he was sent, with the power of proconsul, to Cilicia, his integrity and prudence made him successful against the enemy, and at his return he was honoured with a triumph, which the factions prevented him the enjoyment of. After much hesitation during the civil commotions between Cæsar and Pompey, he joined himself to the latter, and followed him to Greece. When victory had declared in favour of Cæsar, at the battle of Pharsalia, Cicero went to Brundisium, and was reconciled to the conqueror, who treated him with great humanity. From this time Cicero retired into the country, and seldom visited Rome. When Cæsar had been stabbed in the senate, Cicero recommended a general amnesty, and was the most earnest to decree the provinces to Brutus and Cassius. But when he saw the interest of Cæsar's murderers decrease, and Antony come into power, he retired to Athens. He soon after returned, but lived in perpetual fear of assassination. The great enmity which Cicero bore to Antony was fatal to him; and Augustus, Antony, and Lepidus, the triumvirs, to destroy all cause of quarrel, and each to dispatch his enemies, produced their lists of proscription. About two hundred were doomed to death, and Cicero was among the number upon the list of Antony. Augustus yielded up a man to whom he partly owed his greatness, and Cicero was pursued by the emissaries of Antony, among whom was Popilius, whom he had defended upon an accusation of parricide. He had fled in a litter towards the sea of Caieta; and when the assassins came up to him, he put his head out of the litter, and it was severed from

HISTORY.

the body by Heremnius. This memorable event happened in December, 43 B. C. after the enjoyment of life for sixty-three years, eleven months, and five days.

CID (the), a celebrated hero in the Spanish history, whose narrative is blended with a considerable share of romance. Thus much appears to be truth: his real name was Don Roderigo Dias de Bivar, and he was reared in the court of the kings of Castile. On account of his early prowess he received the honour of knighthood, and in 1063 went with Don Sancho of Castile against Ramiro king of Arragon, who was slain in battle. On the accession of Sancho, he accompanied him to the siege of Zamora, where the king being killed by treachery, Roderigo led the troops back to Castile, carrying with him the dead body of his master. Alfonso, the brother of Sancho, was then placed on the throne, after purging himself by oath from all concern in the murder of Sancho. In 1074 Roderigo married donna Ximena Dias, daughter of count Diego Alvarez of the Asturias; soon after which he revolted against Alfonso, and committed great ravages throughout Arragon, and penetrating near Saragossa, fixed his residence in a fortress still called Pena de el Cid (the rock of the Cid), where he became an independent chief. In 1094 he took Valentia, and held it until his death in 1099.

CIMBRI, a people about whose origin much controversy has arisen among the ancient authors. Some imagine them to be Danes or Saxons. About 639 A. U. C. they left Jutland or Chersonesus Cimbria, and joined the Teutons and Tigurians, people of Germany, and made a formidable body, which overran all Germany, Switzerland, &c. and on passing into Italy, the Romans sent forth their armies against them, which were often defeated, and at length they were routed at Camargue, by Marius, about the 632d year of Rome. Some authors think that the Cimbrians invented

drums; at least Strabo remarks, that they stretched skins over their open chariots, and beat them at the beginning of the battle.

CIMON, an Athenian, son of Miltiades and Hegisipyle, famous for his debaucheries in his youth, and the reformation of his morals when he arrived at years of discretion. When his father died, he was imprisoned, because unable to pay the fine levied upon him by the Athenians; but he was released from confinement by his sister and wife Elpinice. He behaved with great courage at the battle of Salamis, and rendered himself popular by his munificence and valor. He defeated the Persian fleet, and took 200 ships, and totally routed their land-army, on the same day. He some time after lost all his popularity, and was banished by the Athenians, who declared war against the Lacedæmonians. He was recalled from his exile, and at his return he made a reconciliation between Lacedæmon and his countrymen. He was afterwards appointed to carry on the war against Persia in Egypt, and Cyprus, with a fleet of 200 ships. On the coast of Asia, he gave battle to the enemy, and totally ruined their fleet. He died as he was besieging the town of Citium in Cyprus, B. C. 449, in the fifty-first year of his age.

CINCINNATUS, Q. a celebrated Roman, who was informed, as he ploughed his field, that the senate had chosen him dictator. Upon this, he left his ploughed land with regret, and repaired to the field of battle, where his countrymen were closely besieged by the Volsci and Æqui. He conquered the enemy, and returned to Rome in triumph; and sixteen days after his appointment, he laid down his office, and retired back to plough his fields. In his eightieth year he was again summoned against Præneste as dictator, and after a successful campaign, he resigned the absolute power which he had enjoyed only twenty-one days, nobly disregarding the rewards that were offered him

by the senate. He flourished about 460 years before Christ.

CINNA (Lucius Cornelius,) a Roman consul, 87 B. C. who with Marius filled Rome with blood. He procured the consulate four times. He was stoned to death at Ancona.

CIUDAD, or CIVIDAD RODRIGO, a fortified town of Spain, built in the thirteenth century, on the site of the antient Mirobriga. In June, 1810, it was invested by the French, and surrendered on the 10th of July following; it continued in their possession till the 19th of January, 1812, when it was besieged by the British, under lord Wellington. The attack was made by the British in five columns, which proved successful in every point, and the garrison, after a desperate conflict, surrendered to the number of 1700 men, besides ammunition, stores, &c. Major-general Mackinnon fell at the head of his storming party, in the moment of victory, and the killed and wounded amounted to 1200.

CLAIRFAIT, count, a famous Austrian general. In 1792, he commanded the Austrian troops against France, and after taking Longwy and Stenay, he retired into the Low Countries. Here he lost the famous battle of Jemappe; but his retreat across the Rhine was a master-piece of military skill. Under the command of the prince of Cobourg, he achieved considerable advantages at Altenhoven, Quievrain, Hansen, and Famars, and decided the victory of Nerwinde. With general Pichegru, he disputed every foot of ground, till the inferiority of his forces obliged him to abandon the country. In 1795, he took the command of the army of Mayence, forced the French camp, and took a number of prisoners. He was following this victory with ardour, when he received at Manheim an order to desist. On this he gave in his resignation, and retired to Vienna, where he died in 1798.

CLAUDIUS I. emperor of Rome, was the son of Drusus, and succeeded Caligula. He obtained some conquests in Britain, and

built several noble structures in Rome. He was poisoned by his wife Agrippina, who wanted to place her son Nero on the throne, A. D. 54. He was then 63.

CLAUDIUS II. was a Dalmatian by birth, and succeeded Gallienus. He obtained some great victories over the Goths, and other nations, and died after a reign of two years.

CLAUDIUS (Appius,) the founder of the Claudian family, was a Sabine, but on account of some differences with his countrymen, he settled at Rome, with several of his kindred and vassals, B. C. 504. He was well received, obtained several grants, and became consul, in which he behaved with firmness and integrity. The time of his death is not known.

CLAUDIUS (Appius,) was chosen consul, B. C. 471. Claudius marched against the Volsci, but his troops threw down their arms and fled; on which he, after his arrival on the Roman territory, caused all his officers to be put to death, and decimated his army. He was impeached for heading the opposition to an agrarian law; but died before the trial could be brought on.

CLAUDIUS (Appius,) the decemvir, the first person elected to that office. He died in prison, where he was confined for his baseness, in endeavouring to obtain possession of Virginia, by subornation of false testimony and judgment. With him the decemvirate ceased.

CLEMENT IV. was a Frenchman, had borne arms, afterwards became a civilian, and lastly entered into orders. He was made archbishop of Narbonne, and a cardinal. Pope Urban IV. sent him legate to England. He succeeded that pontiff in 1265, and died in 1268.

CLEMENT VII. (Julius de Medici,) succeeded Adrian VI. in 1523. He was a natural son of Julian de Medici, but Leo X. his relation, declared him legitimate, on the testimony of several persons, that his father and mother were married. That pope made him a cardinal. He joined the kings of France and England

HISTORY.

against the emperor Charles V. which was called the holy league. Rome was in consequence besieged and taken, and the pope retired to the castle of St. Angelo, where he was obliged to submit to the conditions imposed upon him by the emperor. He excommunicated Henry VIII. of England, on account of his marriage with Anne Boleyn, which occasioned the separation of England from the Roman see. He died in 1534.

CLEMENT XIV. Is sometimes called the Protestant pope. He suppressed the order of the Jesuits, and gave many instances of great liberality in religious opinions. He is better known by his real name, Ganganelli. He died in 1775.

CLEOMBROTUS, the name of two kings of Lacedemonia. The first made war against the Boeotians, and was slain in a battle fought with Epaminondas at Leuctra, B. C. 371. The second was son-in-law of Leonidas, and for some time usurped the throne during the expulsion of that great captain, but when Leonidas was recalled, Cleombrotus was banished, and was attended by his wife, who had accompanied her father in his exile.

CLEOMENES I. king of Sparta, conquered the Argives, and delivered Athens from the tyranny of the Pisistratids. He slew himself in a fit of insanity, B. C. 491.

CLEOMENES II. succeeded his brother Argasipolis II. and reigned sixty-one years, in the greatest tranquillity.

CLEOMENES III. the son of Leonidas, whom he succeeded, B. C. 236. He poisoned his colleague Eurydamides, and took for an associate in the government his brother Euclidas, against the laws. Engaging in a war with the Achæans, he was defeated, and obliged to fly into Egypt, where he destroyed himself, B. C. 219.

CLEOPATRA, queen of Egypt, was the daughter of Ptolemy Auletes, and the sister of Ptolemy Dionysius, who deprived her of her share of the kingdom, on which she admitted Cæsar to her arms to gain his interest in her

behalf, and by him had a son called Cæsarion. Ptolemy was defeated and accidentally drowned. He left the throne to his sister. She put away her younger brother by poison. She afterwards resided with Cæsar, and was at Rome when he was killed, on which she fled from the city, and after the battle of Philippi she was summoned by Antony to answer the charge preferred against her, of having assisted Brutus. When she made her appearance before Antony, the charms of her person ensnared him, and he married her, regardless of his connection with Octavia, the sister of Augustus. At the battle of Actium she fled, and her paramour was defeated. He afterwards died in her arms. Cleopatra, to prevent being led captive to grace the triumph of Augustus, applied an asp to her breast, and died of the wound, B. C. 30, and of her age thirty-nine. She was a woman of genius, and versed in several languages; but of a most ambitious and extravagant spirit, and is said to have dissolved costly pearls in vinegar, to render her entertainments more expensive.

CLIFFORD (George,) earl of Cumberland, a nobleman distinguished by his naval enterprises, in the time of queen Elizabeth. His successes were not unmixed with disappointments, yet he did great damage to the Spanish settlements and trade. He died in 1605.

CLISTHENES, an Athenian, who contributed to the expulsion of the family of Pisistratus from the sovereign power, B. C. 511, and introduced the mode of banishment by the ostracism. He was the first that was banished, but afterwards was recalled.

CLIVE (Robert) lord of Plassey, eminent for his successes in India, was originally a writer in the Company's service. He assisted at Tanjore in 1747, and, in 1751, took Arcot by a coup-de-main, and relieved Trichinopoly. He afterwards took Fort William in Bengal, defeated surajah Dowla, and placed Jaffer Ali Cawn on the throne. His honours rose upon

these achievements, and, among others, he was made president of India. He fell a victim to the imputations of faction; and after defending himself with spirit against a charge of abusing his power, gave way to depression, and destroyed himself in 1774.

CLODIUS, Ps. a Roman, descended from an illustrious family, and remarkable for his licentiousness, avarice, and ambition. He was such an enemy to Cato, that he made him go with prætorian power, in an expedition against Ptolemy, king of Cyprus, that, by the difficulty of the campaign, he might ruin his reputation, and destroy his interest at Rome during his absence. Cato, however, by his uncommon success, frustrated the views of Clodius. He was also an inveterate enemy of Cicero; by his influence he was banished from Rome, partly on pretence that he had punished with death, and without trial, the adherents of Catiline. Clodius was murdered by Milo.

CLOTAIRE I. king of France, was the son of Clovis and Clotilda. He began to reign in 511.

CLOTAIRE II. son and successor to Chilperic I. He was defeated by Theodebert and Thierri: but afterwards reunited the different kingdoms of France under himself. He died in 618.

CLOVIS I. the founder of the French monarchy, succeeded Childeric his father in 481. He embraced christianity, and was publicly baptized by St. Remi. He defeated the Goths, subdued several provinces, and fixed the royal residence at Paris. He died in 511.

CLYTEMNESTRA, a daughter of Tyndarus, king of Sparta, by Leda. In the absence of Agamemnon, her husband, Ægysthus made his court to her, and publicly lived with her. Her infidelity reached the ears of Agamemnon, who was before the walls of Troy; and he resolved to take full revenge at his return. He was prevented from putting his schemes into execution; Clytemnestra, with her adulterer, murdered him at his arrival,

as he came out of the bath, or, according to other accounts, as he sat down at a feast prepared to celebrate his happy return. After this murder, Clytemnestra publicly married Ægysthus, and he ascended the throne of Argos. She was killed by her son Orestes.

CODE NAPOLEON. On the 18th of January, 1804, a New Civil Code, denominated the Code Napoleon, was presented and adopted by the legislature of France; on which occasion, the French government ordered that a medal should be struck to perpetuate this epocha. This was executed after the first consul had abdicated that title, and assumed the one of emperor.

CODERUS, the last king of Athens, and the son of Melanthus, who, to ensure the victory to his country, rushed in disguise into the midst of the army of the Heraclidae, and was slain, B. C. 1070.

COIN, silver, first used by Phidon, king of Argos, 860 before Christ; silver money at Rome, 200 before Christ; first used in Britain, 25 before Christ; in Scotland, of gold and silver, 223 after Christ; first made round in England, in 1101; silver halfpence and farthings in the reign of John, and pence the largest current coin; gold first coined in England, 1067; groats first coined in Bohemia, 1301; copper money used only in Scotland and Ireland, 1399; gold next coined in England, 1345; groats and half groats the largest silver coin in England, 1531; in 1347, a pound of silver was coined into 22 shillings, and in 1352, a pound was coined into 25 shillings; in 1414, they were increased to 30 shillings; and in 1500, a pound of silver was coined into 40 shillings; and in 1530 they were extended to 62; gold first coined in Venice, 1346; shillings first coined in England, 1608; crowns and half-crowns first coined, 1651; copper money introduced into France by Henry II. 1550; the first legal copper coin introduced, which put an end to private leaden tokens, universally practised, especially in London, 1809; copper money introduced into England by James

HISTORY.

I. 1620; milling coin introduced, 1692; halfpence and farthings first coined by government, Aug. 16, 1672; guineas were first coined, 1673; silver coinage, 1696; broad pieces of gold called in by government, and coined into guineas, 1732; five shillings and three-penny pieces in gold were issued in 1716 and 1761. The mint of the United States of America established in 1793.

COLCHESTER, a town of England, in the county of Essex, said to be the Colonia of the Romans, and the birth-place of Helena, the mother of Constantine. In the reign of Mary, many persons were put to death here on account of their religious principles; and, in 1648, the town was besieged by the forces of the parliament, and so reduced, that 730 horses were delivered up for provisions, and dogs and cats were sold at an enormous price. The town at length surrendered, and two brave officers, sir Charles Lucas and sir George Lisle, were shot by order of the enemy's council, without trial, under the walls.

COLIGNI (Gaspard de,) admiral of France, and chief of the Calvinists against the Guises, to whom he continued formidable even after repeated defeats. He was the first who fell in the infamous massacre at Paris, on St. Bartholomew's day, in 1572. His head was sent by Catharine de Medicis to the pope.

COLUI, or KOLLUI, a town of Bohemia, near which was fought the celebrated battle of June 18, 1757, between the Prussians, commanded by Frederic II. and the Austrians under marshal Daun; when the former were defeated with great slaughter.

COLLATINUS (L. Tarquinius,) a nephew of Tarquin the Proud, and husband of Lucretia. He assisted Brutus in expelling the Tarquins, but finding that the people had conceived an antipathy to all of that family, he went into voluntary exile.

COLLEONE (Bartholomew,) an Italian adventurer, who served under de Montone, in the army of Joan queen of Naples, and after-

wards in the Venetian service, for whom he destroyed the army of Nicholas Piccinino. He then joined Philip Visconti, and afterwards Francis Sforza, for whom he gained the battle of Frascati over the French. The Venetians regained him, by the appointment of generalissimo, and he struck terror into all the enemies of the republic.

COLLINGWOOD (Cuthbert, lord,) an English admiral, was born at Newcastle-upon-Tyne, in 1748. In 1761 he entered into the naval service, in which he passed through all the regular steps of promotion, till he was made post-captain, and commanded the Prince, admiral Bowyer's flagship, in the battle of the 1st of June, 1794. After this, he bore a part with Nelson, in the action off Cape St. Vincent, Feb. 14, 1797. In 1804 he was made vice-admiral of the blue, and served with Cornwallis in the tedious but important blockade of Brest. At length, after a variety of services, Collingwood became second to Nelson, in the battle of Trafalgar. On this occasion his ship, the Royal Sovereign, commenced the fight, in such a manner as to draw from the commander these expressions: "Look at that noble fellow! Observe the style in which he carries his ship into action!" After the loss of Nelson, the command devolved upon Collingwood at a critical period, and how well he secured by his prudence what had been so gloriously won, needs not be here related. He was now advanced to be vice-admiral of the red, confirmed in the command of the Mediterranean fleet, and created a peer of Great Britain, by the title of baron Collingwood. He died off Minorca, on board the Ville de Paris, March 7, 1810; and his body being brought to England, was interred in St. Paul's cathedral.

COLLOT D'HERBOIS, remarkable for his horrible cruelties at Lyons, which city surrendered on the 9th of October, 1793, after a long and desperate siege. The atrocities which followed the surrender exceed all that the imagination can picture to itself of wrore

than cannibal barbarity. It is impossible to follow Collet d'Herbois in the hellish devices to which he resorted to torture his victims. While his colleague, Couthon, affixed his mark to the houses which were to be demolished, he levied an army of cut-throats, at the head of which was a detachment of the revolutionary army of Paris. Thousands of victims were, by his order, thrown into the prisons; but, before the massacres commenced, a festival was commanded. After the temporary commission had been employed for several days and nights in pronouncing sentence of death on the wretched prisoners, its members presented themselves to Collet d'Herbois, to complain that they were fatigued by their task, as well as was the executioner, who attended at the guillotine. A new mode of punishment was accordingly adopted. On the following day, sixty-nine individuals, bound two and two, were escorted to the *Place des Brotteaux* to be shot. The signal having been given by Collet d'Herbois, the guns, loaded with grape-shot, were discharged. Those who were not killed by the fire were dispatched by the muskets of the soldiery, and their bodies thrown into the Rhone. This butchery was succeeded by another similar one of 108 victims, the greater part of them young men of good families, who had been purposely escorted to Lyons from the armies in which they were engaged in fighting the battles of their country. At the end of five months nearly 6000 persons had perished.

COLONIES, Discovery and Settling of—

America, discovered by Columbus, Oct. 11, 1492; so named by Amerigo Vesputius, 1497.

—, North, discovered by Cabot, in 1497, and settled in 1610.

—, South, by Amerigo Vesputius, 1497.

Angola settled by the Portuguese, 1482.

Anguilla, by the English, 1650.

Antigua, by the English, 1632.

COLONIES—

Aruba-isle, planted by Holland, 1634.

Azores-isles, discovered by the Portuguese, 1440.

Bahama-isles, by the English, Dec. 1718.

Barbadoes discovered and planted, 1614.

Barbuda, by the English, 1628.

Barrington-isle explored, June, 1793.

Batavia first forfeited by the Dutch, 1618.

Bermuda isles, discovered 1527; settled 1612.

Boston, in New England, built, 1630.

Botany Bay settlement, sailed from England, March 21, 1787.

Bourbon-isle, planted by the French, 1672.

Brasil discovered, 1486; settled by the Spaniards, 1515; by the Dutch, 1624; taken from Holland by the Portuguese, 1654.

Britain first discovered to be an island, about 90.

Caledonia, in America, settled, 1609.

—, New, discovered by Captain Cook, in 1774.

California, discovered by Cortes, 1543; taken by sir F. Drake, 1578.

Canada discovered by Cabot, 1499; explored by the French, 1508, 1524, and 1534; settled, 1540; Quebec built, 1608; taken first by England, 1628.

Canary-isles discovered, and granted to Spain, 1344; explored, 1393.

Cape Blanco discovered, 1441.

Cape Breton, by the English, 1584; yielded to France, 1632; taken by England, 1745; restored; 1748; again taken and kept, 1758.

Cape de Verd islands, 1447.

Cape of Good Hope discovered, 1487; planted by the Dutch, 1631.

Cape Horn first sailed round, 1616; Straits discovered, 1643.

Carolina discovered, 1497; planted, 1629.

Caribbean-isles discovered, 1593.

Cat's-isle, one of the Bahamas, the first discovery in America by Columbus, 1492.

HISTORY.

COLONIES—

Cayenne-isle first planted by the French, 1635.
 Ceylon, the isle of, 1506.
 Charlotte's, queen, island, by captain Wallis, 1767.
 Chatham-isle explored, June, 1793.
 Chill, discovered by Spain, 1518; invaded by the Spaniards, 1540.
 China first visited by the Portuguese, 1517; conquered by the eastern Tartars, 1625.
 Christopher's, St. isle of, 1595; settled by the English, 1626.
 Congou kingdom discovered, and settled on by the Portuguese, 1492.
 Crimea settled by Russia, 1784.
 Cuba discovered, 1492; settled, 1511.
 Curazoa settled by the Dutch, 1634.
 Darien settled, 1700.
 Davis's Straits discovered, 1583.
 De la Plate river, 1512.
 Descada isle, by Columbus, 1494.
 Domingo, St. isle of, discovered, 1492; city founded, 1494.
 Dominica, discovered by Columbus, Nov. 3, 1493.
 Easter-island, 1722.
 East Indies, by the Portuguese, 1497.
 Falkland, isles of, 1592.
 Florida, discovered by Cabot, 1500; settled, 1603.
 Forbisher's Straits, 1578.
 Fox-island, in the North Pacific Ocean, 1760.
 Gallapagos isles discovered, 1700; explored by Capt. James Colnett, 1793.
 Georgia colony, erected by general Oglethorpe, 1732.
 Gorce-isle, first planted by the Dutch, 1617.
 Granada-isle settled by France, 1652.
 Greenland discovered, 1585.
 ——— settled, 1721, 1731.
 Guadaloupe-isle, discovered by Columbus, 1493; planted by the French, 1635.
 Helena, St. discovered, 1502; settled by the English, 1651.
 Hood's isle explored, June, 1793.
 Hudson's Bay, by Capt. Hudson, 1607.
 Iceland, by a Danish pirate, 866.
 Jamaica, discovered by Colum-

COLONIES—

bus, 1494; settled by the Spaniards, 1509.
 Japan discovered, 1542; visited by the English, 1612.
 Ladrone isles, 1521.
 Le Roach island, 1657.
 Lord Auckland's Group, cluster of islands, discovered 1809.
 Louisiana, west of the Mississippi, discovered by the French, 1633; settled, 1718.
 Madagascar, discovered by the Portuguese, 1506.
 Madeira, island of, discovered, 1344 and 1418.
 Magellan, straits of, 1520.
 Mariagalante-isle, 1493.
 Maryland province, planted by lord Baltimore, 1633.
 Mauritius-isle discovered, 1598; settled, 1721.
 Mexico settled by the Spaniards, 1519.
 Montreal discovered, 1534; settled, 1629.
 Montserrat, discovered by Columbus, 1493; planted 1632.
 Nevis, planted by England, 1628.
 New Caledonia discovered, 1774.
 New England, planted by the Puritans, 1620.
 Newfoundland, discovered by Cabot, 1497; settled, 1614.
 New Guinea, 1699.
 New Holland, discovered by the Dutch, 1628; settled by the English, 1787.
 New Jersey, in America, planted by the Swedes, 1637.
 New Spain, or Mexico, 1518.
 New Zealand discovered, 1660; explored, in 1769.
 New Plymouth built and settled, 1620.
 New York settled, 1664.
 Nootka, in the N. W. of America, discovered, 1778; settled by the English, 1789.
 North-east passage to Russia discovered, 1553.
 Nova Scotia settled, 1622.
 Nova Zembla discovered, 1553.
 Otaheite, or George III.'s island, June 18, 1765.
 Owby-he island, 1778.
 Panama settled, 1516.
 Paraguay discovered, 1525.
 Pennsylvania, Penn's charter for planting, 1639.
 Peru discovered, 1518.

COLONIES—

Philippine isles, by the Spaniards, 1521.
 Pitt's Straits, April 30, 1700.
 Porto Rico, 1497.
 Saba planted by the Dutch, 1640.
 Salem, in New England, settled, 1628.
 Sandwich islands discovered, 1773.
 Savaunah settled, 1732.
 Sierra Leone coast discovered, 1460.
 Society isles, 1765.
 Solomon's isles, 1527.
 Somers' isles, 1537.
 Spain, New, 1518.
 St. Kustatia isle settled in Holland, 1632.
 St. Helena first possessed by the English, 1600; settled, 1651.
 St. Lawrence river discovered and explored by the French, 1508.
 St. Salvador, by Columbus, Oct. 11, 1492.
 Suffolk isles discovered, 1764; first produced sugar, 1770.
 Surinam planted by England, 1640.
 Suwarrow islands, discovered by a Russian, Sept. 27, 1814.
 Surat settled, 1603.
 Tate-island, East Indies, discovered, June 29, 1795.
 Tobago planted by the Dutch, 1642.
 Terceras isles discovered by the Spaniards, 1583.
 Terra Firma settled by the Spaniards, 1524.
 Trinidad, the isle of, discovered, 1498.
 Ukraine settled by Russia, 1752.
 Virginia discovered by John Cabot, 1496; taken possession of by sir Walter Raleigh, 1584; the settlement of the first permanent colony there, 1636.

West Indies, by Columbus, 1492.

COLONNA (Prospero), a military commander, who, with his relation Fabricio, assisted Charles VIII. king of France, in the conquest of Naples. They afterwards contributed to its recovery for the house of Arragon. Prospero was made prisoner at Villa Franca, in 1515. On regaining his liberty he attacked the French with vigour, defeated them at Bicoque, and re-

lieved Milan in 1522. He died the year following.

COLOURIS, the antient Salamis, an island of Greece, famous for the defeat of Xerxes' fleet by the Greeks under Themistocles.

COLUMBUS (Christopher), was born at Genoa in 1442. After making some trading voyages, he engaged in the service of a corsair, but the ship was blown up in an engagement, and he saved himself by swimming. His study of cosmography led him to think that there must be a new continent beyond the Atlantic ocean, which idea he communicated in 1474 to a learned Florentine, named Paul Fiscanelli; who encouraged him to persevere in the attempt to make a voyage of discovery. Columbus first applied to the republic of Genoa, and afterwards to the courts of England and Portugal, but without success. At length Ferdinand and Isabella, of Spain, acceded to his proposals, and he sailed with three small vessels on the 3d of August, 1492. On that very night the island of San Salvador was perceived, and the joy of the crew knew no bounds. Having visited several other islands, and settled a colony in Hispaniola, Columbus set sail for Spain, and, on the 15th of March, 1493, arrived in the port of Palos. The court being then at Barcelona, Columbus repaired thither, where he was received with great pomp, under a royal canopy, and seated by their majesties, in the presence of a vast assembly. On the 25th of September, the same year, he sailed again, and discovered other islands in the West Indies; but in a third voyage, made 1498, he found his colony in a state of mutiny, to suppress which, and restore order, he remained there, till the court sent out Bovadilla to supersede him, and take upon himself the government. This man put Columbus into irons, which he indignantly wore in the royal presence, and ordered that they should be buried with him. After this he made another voyage, with a view to discover a passage to the East Indies, but returned to Europe in

HISTORY.

1504, without having accomplished that object. He died at Valladolid, May 20, 1506, and was buried in the cathedral of Seville.

COMMONS, House of, composed of the representatives of the people of Great Britain and Ireland, traces its origin at the time of Edward I., who, on account of the expences incurred in preparations against the kings of France and Scotland, who had entered into an alliance against him, was obliged to have frequent recourse to parliaments; and to introduce into the public council the lower orders of the state. Along with two knights of the shire, he enjoined the sheriff to send to parliament two deputies from each borough; "as it is a most equitable rule," says he, "that what concerns all, should be approved of by all, and common dangers be repelled by united efforts." This noble principle seems to have laid the foundation of a free and equitable government; and from this epoch may be dated the regular establishment of the different branches of the House of Commons.

Oldfield, however, asserts, that representative assemblies, elected by the people, were in existence as early as the time of the ancient Britons; and that the *Kyfr-y-then* of the ancient British was the *Commune Concilium* mentioned by Cæsar, afterwards called the *Witena-Gemote* of the Saxons, and which assumed the name of *Parliament* in the reign of Edward the Confessor, who had received his education in France.

Seldon also proves, from Hovedon, that the Conqueror assembled a parliament in the year 1070, which was composed of twelve representatives returned out of every county.

The assembling of a parliament composed of four representatives from each county, in the 40th of Henry III., was the re-establishment of the ancient form of government which existed from the earliest times, but had been wrecked in the same tempest that overturned the Saxon throne; and it is as absurd to suppose that there

was no representative parliament antecedent to the 40th of Henry III., as to assert that there was no king prior to the same period.

The great authorities we have had recourse to, are supported by records, charters, and legal documents which defy contradiction, and establish the constitution of parliaments on a basis not to be shaken. The number of members in the parliament summoned by the Conqueror were twelve for each county, and four in that of the 40th of Henry III., and the electors, till the 8th year of Henry VI., were all those bearing scot and lot. Even freeholders of forty shillings per annum, were never known as possessing exclusive rights of election, till the enactment of the famous disfranchising statute of that year.

Thus far Oldfield. De Lolme, alluding to the House of Commons convened by Edward I., to whose reign he, indeed, attributes its rise, acknowledges that these deputies of the people were not, at first, possessed of any considerable authority. They were far from enjoying those extensive privileges which, in these days, constitute the House of Commons—a collateral part of the government; they were in those times called up only to provide for the wants of the king, and approve the resolutions taken by him and the assembly of the lords.

Whatever disadvantages might attend the station at first allotted to the representatives of the people, it was soon to be compensated by the preponderance the people necessarily acquire, when they are enabled to act and move with method, and especially with concert.

Under Edward II. the Commons began to annex petitions to the bills by which they granted subsidies; this was the dawn of their legislative authority.

Under Edward III. they declared they would not, in future, acknowledge any law to which they had not given their decided assent. Soon after they impeached, and procured to be condemned, some of the first ministers of state.

Under Henry IV. they refused to grant subsidies before an answer had been given to their petitions.

Under Henry VII., who ascended the throne sword in hand, the Commons, who had been accustomed to act only a secondary part in public affairs, found themselves bereft of those who had hitherto been their leaders, and were more than ever afraid to form, of themselves, an opposition. Placed immediately, as well as the lords, under the eye of the king, they beheld themselves exposed to the same dangers. Like them, therefore, they purchased their personal security at the expense of public liberty; and in reading the history of the two first kings of the house of Tudor, we imagine ourselves reading the relation given by Tacitus of Tiberius and the Roman senate.

For a more enlarged and progressive history of the House of Commons, see Oldfield.

CONCORD, a town of the United States, the seat of the provincial congress in 1774, and the spot where the first opposition was made to the British troops, on the 19th of April, 1775.

CONDE (Lewis, the first prince of), was the son of Charles of Bourbon, duke of Vendôme, and born in 1530. He signalized himself at the battle of St. Quintin, and became leader of the discontented Hugonots. He was wounded at the battle of Dreux, in 1562, and slain in that of Jarnac, in 1569.

CONDE (Henry, prince of), was born in 1588. He turned catholic at the request of Henry IV. In 1616 he was committed to the Bastille, and remained there three years. After the death of Louis XIII. he recovered favour at court, and was minister-of-state under the regent. He died at Paris in 1646.

CONDE (Louis, prince of), commonly called the great, was born at Paris in 1621. At the age of twenty-two he gained the battle of Rocroi against the Spaniards, and captured Thionville, and other places. He next entered Germa-

ny, where he gathered innumerable laurels. Being recalled from thence, he was sent into Catalonia, but failed in his attempt to take Lerida. In 1641 he defeated the Imperialists in Flanders with prodigious slaughter. In the civil war, Condé at first adhered to the court, but afterwards opposed it without success. He refused to accede to the peace, and entered into the service of the Spaniards in the Low Countries, where his military exploits were uncommonly splendid. At the peace of the Pyrennees, in 1659, he obtained his pardon, and he served his country with his wonted activity and success. He contended with the prince of Orange in the Netherlands, and was wounded at the famous passage of the Rhine. The conquest of Franche Compté was also chiefly owing to him. After the death of Turenne, he carried on the war against Germany with advantage. He died in 1686.

CONFEDERATION OF THE RHINE. In 1806, the emperor Napoleon having determined that there should not exist, on the continent, any power that might be capable of opposing his designs, contrived to dismember the German empire, and induce the emperor to resign his rank as the head, with his influence. In pursuance of these views, a new sort of union was formed among several of the German princes, under the name of the Confederation of the Rhine. The kings of Bavaria and Wirtemberg, the arch-chancellor, the elector of Baden, the duke of Berg, the landgrave of Hesse Darmstadt, the princes of Nassau Weilbourg, and Nassau Usingen, of Hohenzollern, Hechingen, Siegmaringen, Salm-Salm, Salm-Kyrburg, Isenbourg, Birstein, and Lichtenstein, the duke of Arenberg, and the count of Leyen, published at Ratisbon a declaration, purporting, that as the Germanic constitution then existing could afford no guarantee to the public tranquillity, the contracting parties had agreed, that their states should be forever separated from the Germanic

HISTORY.

body, and united by a particular confederation, under the title of "The Confederate States," of which the emperor of the French was constituted the head and protector. This treaty of confederation was projected and drawn up at Paris, and ratified at Munich, on the 25th July, 1806: it consisted of forty articles, relative to the territories which each of the contracting powers were to possess, and other important particulars. Every continental war, in which either France or any of the confederate should be engaged, was to be common to all; the contingent, to be furnished by each of the members, was determined in the following proportion; France 200,000 men, Bavaria 30,000, Wirtemberg 12,000, Baden 8,000, Berg 5,000, Darmstadt 4,000, Nassau and the other states 4,000.

By this confederation, the Germanic body was completely dissolved, and a very considerable part of its members ranged themselves under the banners of France. The emperor, Francis II., in consequence of this disorganization, resigned his title of emperor of Germany, and took that of emperor of Austria. Thus was dissolved the German, or, as it was styled in diplomatic language, the holy Roman empire; 1006 years after Charlemagne received the imperial title and crown from the hands of the pope at Rome.

CONFLANS, M. D. commanded the fleet fitted out at Brest in 1759, for the purpose of causing the separation of Ireland from the rest of the British dominions. The execution of this scheme was, however, delayed by the vigilance of sir Edward Hawke, who blockaded up the French harbour with twenty-three ships of the line; but boisterous winds having driven the British fleet off their station, Conflans contrived to set sail; sir Edward Hawke soon pursued and came up with him, and completely defeated him.

CONGRESS, of American delegates, was first convened at Philadelphia, in August 1774. After pledging themselves not to import from or export to Great Britain,

they concluded their session by addressing an earnest and firm, but respectful, remonstrance to the British government. They sent an address to the inhabitants of Great Britain, and another to the people of America; in the former, they enumerated the oppressions of parliament, and called upon their British brethren not to aid the ministry in enslaving their American subjects: in the latter, they endeavoured to confirm the people in a spirited and unanimous determination to defend their constitutional rights.

The remonstrance to the British government being unavailing, the commencement of hostilities between the British and the American patriots ensued. After the action at Bunker's hill, in which the Americans were at length obliged to retreat, the continental congress assembled again at Philadelphia, on the 10th of May, and determined to raise forces in the name of the United Colonies. On the 15th of June, they unanimously elected George Washington, then a member from Virginia, commander in chief of the American troops.

While hostilities were in progress, Congress vainly attempted to obtain a repeal of those edicts which the British government had directed against the freedom of America. At length, these illustrious republicans, than whom none of loftier spirit or more steadfast virtue ever upheld the liberties of a country, declared the colonies free and independent, and established a general government. This solemn act took place on the 4th of July, 1776.

For a further history, See United States.

CONNECTICUT, a state of North America, to the south of Massachusetts, was first settled by emigrants from the latter state in 1634. The first settlers were followed by emigrants from England. In 1636, a constitution was formed for themselves by the people of the original province of Connecticut. On the restoration of Charles II. to the English throne, a charter, remarkable for its republican

features, was granted to Connecticut, and included under the same government the colony of Newhaven. After getting rid of their adversaries the Dutch, and a bloody war with the Indians was terminated, by their entire subjugation, the settlers of New England had not long begun to taste the sweets of repose, when new troubles arose.

In 1685, a *quo warranto* was issued against Connecticut, with the hope of compelling a surrender of the charter. Sir Edmund Andros, who had been appointed governor of New England, finding that the charter could not be obtained, declared that the government was taken into the hands of the king, and proceeded to administer it in his name.

The ancient charter of Connecticut was re-established on the accession of William and Mary. But the satisfaction of the people was soon lessened by a new attack on one of their most essential rights. Colonel Fletcher, who was governor of New York, was authorized to command the militia of Connecticut and the neighbouring provinces. The legislature of Connecticut refused to acknowledge this right, and a warm verbal dispute ensued. While thus harassed by repeated attempts upon her civil rights, Connecticut was compelled to engage in the contests which the mother-country maintained with France, and to contribute her blood and treasure in support of the weak and ill-conceived expeditions that were sent by the English against Canada.

During the revolutionary war, Connecticut suffered little from the actual presence of the enemy, though she contributed to the successful issue of the conflict. After the peace of 1783, Connecticut was among the earliest to adopt the federal constitution.—An attack upon the little village of Stonington, on the 9th of August, 1814, by a large squadron of British ships, produced a display of great bravery and patriotism by the inhabitants, and ended in the triumphant repulse of the assailants, with little injury to the town. The

only recent event of importance is the formation of a constitution, which has taken the place of the ancient charter.

CONON, an Athenian general, who was defeated in a naval engagement by Lysander. He then went into exile, and put himself under the protection of Artaxerxes, king of Persia, by whose aid he was enabled to defeat the Spartans near Cnidos, where their commander was slain. After having fortified Athens, and restored its liberty, he was betrayed to Tiribazus, a Persian, who put him to death, B. C. 393.

CONRAD II. son of Herman duke of Franconia, was elected king of Germany in 1024. Several of the princes revolted against him, but were defeated. In 1027 Conrad went to Rome, where he was crowned emperor. He also obtained the kingdom of Burgundy by the will of king Rodolphus, in 1033. He died in 1039.

CONRAD III. emperor, was before his election duke of Franconia, and the son of Frederic duke of Suabia. His election was attended with civil wars, which raged a long time. When peace was restored, Conrad made an expedition to the Holy Land, where he nearly lost the whole of his army, through the Greeks poisoning the fountains. He returned to Germany, and died in 1152.

CONRAD IV. duke of Suabia was elected emperor of Germany after the death of his father Frederic II. in 1250. Pope Innocent IV., who claimed the right of disposing of the crown, preached a crusade against him. Conrad marched into Italy, took Naples, Capua, and other places, but died soon after, not without suspicion of being poisoned, in 1254.

CONSPIRACIES, the most remarkable in ancient history, were as follow:—A conspiracy was formed against the infant republic of Rome, to restore the banished Sextus Tarquin and the regal government, in which the two sons of Junius Brutus, the first consul, being concerned, were publicly condemned and put to death by their father, 507 B. C.—

HISTORY.

Another by the Tarquin faction against the Roman senators; Publius and Marcus discovered it; the other conspirators were put to death, 496.—Of Catiline and his associates, to murder the consuls and senate, and to burn the city of Rome, discovered by Cicero, consul for the year, 62.

CONSPIRACIES and insurrections in England. Against William II. 1088 and 1093.—Against Henry II. by his queen and children, 1173.—Insurrection of Foulk de Brent against Henry III. 1224. A conspiracy against the same king for cancelling Magna Charta, 1237.—Of the barons against Henry III. 1258.—Of the duke of Exeter and others, against the life of Henry IV. discovered by dropping a paper accidentally, 1400.—Against Henry V. by the earl of Cambridge and others, 1415.—Of Richard, duke of Gloucester, against his nephews Edward V. and his brother, whom he caused to be murdered, 1483.—Of the earl of Suffolk and others against Henry VII. 1506.—Insurrection of the London apprentices, 7 Henry VIII. 1527.—Against queen Elizabeth by Dr. Story, 1571; by Anthony Babington and others, 1586; by Lopez, a Jew, and others, 1593; by Patrick York, an Irish fencing-master, employed by the Spaniards to kill the queen, 1594; of Walpole, a Jesuit, who engaged one Squire to poison the queen's saddle, 1598; all these conspirators were executed.—Against James I. by the marchioness de Verneuil, his mistress, and others, 1605.—The Gunpowder plot discovered, Nov. 5, 1605.—Of Sindercomb and others to assassinate Oliver Cromwell; discovered by his associates: Sindercomb was condemned, but poisoned himself the day before he was to have been executed, 1658.—An insurrection of the Puritans, 1657.—An insurrection of the fifth-monarchymen against Charles II. 1660.—A conspiracy of Blood and his associates, who seized the duke of Ormond, wounded him, and would have hanged him if he had not escaped; Blood afterwards stole the crown, 1670 and 71.—Of the French, Spanish, and English Jesuits, countenanced by the pope,

to assassinate Charles II. discovered by Dr. Tongue and Titus Oates, 1688; another to assassinate him at the Rye-house farm, near Hoddeston, Hertfordshire, in his way from Newmarket, and called the Rye-house Plot, 1683.—Of the whigs of England to dethrone James II. 1688.—Of lord Preston, the bishop of Ely, and others, to restore king James, 1691.—Of Granvil, a French chevalier and his associates, to assassinate king William in Flanders, 1692.—A conspiracy by the earl of Aylesbury, and others, to kill the king near Richmond, 1695.—Of Simon Frazer, lord Lovat, in favour of the Pretender, against queen Anne, 1703.—Of the marquis Guiscard, 1710.—To assassinate George I. by James Sheppard, 1718.—Of counsellor Laver and others to bring in the Pretender, 1722.—Of colonel Despard and his associates, 1803.—Of Thistlewood and others to assassinate the ministers, April 1820, called the Cato-street Plot.

CONSTANTINE THE GREAT, emperor of the Romans, was the son of Constantius Chlorus, by Helena, and born about the year 274. On the death of his father, in 306, he was proclaimed emperor by the army. He defeated the Franks, after which he crossed the Rhine, and committed great ravages in Belgium. He married Fausta, the daughter of Maximian, in 307. His father-in-law taking advantage of his absence from Arles, where he held his court, seized the treasury and assumed the imperial title, but being taken prisoner by Constantine, strangled himself. A war now broke out between Constantine and Maxentius, the son of Maximian, the former reduced Italy, and defeated Maxentius, who was drowned in the Tiber. At this period the æra of Constantine's conversion to christianity is fixed. He now entered Rome in triumph, and received from the senate the rank of Augustus, in conjunction with Licinius and Maximin, the former of whom married his sister, Constantia. A civil war shortly after broke out between Licinius and Maximin, in which the latter was slain. Licinius then formed a

conspiracy against Constantine, which being discovered, war ensued between them, in which Constantine was successful, and peace was concluded. A second war broke out in 323, and terminated by the defeat of Licinius, and his resignation of the Imperial dignity. Not long afterwards he was strangled. Constantine now began to shew his regard for the religion which he had adopted, by building numerous churches, and taking a journey to Jerusalem to visit the holy sepulchre, and while in the Holy Land, he erected a magnificent church at Bethlehem. With this zeal for religion, he blended courage and justice. He conquered the Goths, and gave an asylum in his dominions to a number of Samaritans, who had been driven from their own country. He founded Constantinople, and performed many actions that entitle him to the name of Great. Yet he sullied his character by putting to death his son Crispus. He died in 337, aged 66.

CONSTANTINE II. obtained Gaul, Spain, and Britain, for his share; but endeavouring to dispossess his brother Constans, was slain in 340.

CONSTANTINE (Flavius Julius), a private soldier, who was raised by the army in Britain to the imperial dignity in 407, on which he crossed over to Gaul and conquered that country and Spain. He fixed his court at Arles, where he was besieged by Constantius, the general of the emperor Honorius. He was, in violation of treaty, put to death A. D. 411.

CONSTANTINE IV. surnamed *Pogonatus*, or the *bearded*, succeeded in 668. His first act was an expedition to Sicily, to avenge the murder of his father, and to depose the usurper, in which he succeeded. The army having set up his two brothers as coadjutors with him in the empire, he caused their noses to be cut off. He defeated the Saracens, and died in 685.

CONSTANTINE V. succeeded in 752. He defeated the Saracens, and his brother-in-law, Artavasdes,

who assumed the title of emperor but was afterwards defeated by the Bulgarians, whom, in another battle, he completely routed. He died in 775.

CONSTANTINE VII. defeated the Lombards, and obliged the Turks to quit Italy. He was poisoned by his son Romanus, in 839.

CONSTANTINE X. ascended the throne in 1042; he quelled several insurrections; but the Turks took from him many places. He died in 1054.

CONSTANTINE XIX. was the son of the emperor John Paleologus, and succeeded his brother John in 1448. He was killed in defending Constantinople against the Turks in 1453, and with him ended the Greek empire.

CONSTANTINOPLE, the capital of Turkey in Europe, is situated on the European side of the Bosphorus. It was built upon the ruins of the ancient Byzantium, by Constantine the Great. It became afterwards the capital of the Greek empire; and, having escaped the destructive rage of the barbarous nations, it was the greatest as well as the most beautiful city in Europe, and the only one, during the Gothic ages, in which there remained any image of the ancient elegance in manners and arts. It derived great advantages from its being the rendezvous of the crusaders; and, being then in the meridian of its glory, the European writers, in that age, speak of it with astonishment.

During the third crusade, a revolution happened at Constantinople, which divided the Eastern empire for fifty-eight years. Alexius Angelus, surnamed the Tyrant, having dethroned Isaac II. placed himself upon the throne of Constantinople, in 1195; and Alexius, son of Isaac, applied to the French and Venetians, who passed that way to the holy wars, to assist him in the recovery of his father's empire. They accordingly, in 1203, reduced Constantinople, after a siege of eight days, and replaced Isaac on the throne. The next year, Alexius Ducas Murzuzie assassinated the emperor, whom the

HISTORY.

crusaders had re-established, and seized the crown. On hearing this, the French returned, attacked the city, reduced it in three days, deposed Murzuffe, and elected Baldwin, count of Flanders, to be emperor. He had four successors, the last of whom, Baldwin II. was deposed in 1202, by Michael Paleologus. In the mean time, Theodore Lascaris, who had been charged by the clergy to take arms against the tyrant Murzuffe, finding Constantinople in the power of the French, retired with his wife and family to Nice, where, in 1204, he was crowned emperor, and formed a small empire out of that of Constantinople. He had but three successors; the last of whom, John Ducas, was deprived of his sight, in 1255, by order of Michael Paleologus, his preceptor, who usurped the throne in 1259, and, in 1262, made himself master of Constantinople, so that the empire was re-united. He continued till 1453, when Constantinople was taken by Mohammed II. sultan of the Ottoman Turks; since which period it has remained the seat of their empire.

Constantinople is at this day one of the finest cities in the world, from its situation and port. It is frequently called the Porte, by way of eminence. Great part of the city has been destroyed by conflagrations, pestilence, and earthquakes, at different times, of which the following are the most remarkable:—12,000 houses and 7000 inhabitants destroyed by fire, Sept. 27, 1729; again, May 31, 1745, 12000 houses; Jan. 29, 1749-50, 10,000; in June, 1750, 4000, and the plague 7000 persons; in 1751, nearly destroyed by an earthquake, and 3000 inhabitants killed; Sept. 2, 1754, had 15,000 houses, and 1000 persons burnt; July 5, 1756; June 10, 1782, following, 7000 houses; and August 22, following, 10,000 houses, 50 mosques, 100 corn-mills, &c. On Aug. 5, 1784, 10,000 houses, &c. were destroyed; 2000 houses burnt, Sept. 4, 1778; and 7000 houses in July, 1782. Another destroyed 10,000 houses, Aug. 4, 1784; 22,000 houses were destroy-

ed by fire between March and July, 1791; 7000 were destroyed, Sept. 1792; and the same number in August, 1795. The suburb Pera had 1300 houses, and several magnificent buildings, burnt down, March 13, 1799. In 1812 and 1813, 300,000 of its inhabitants destroyed by a pestilence. In August, 1816, had 1200 houses and 3000 shops destroyed by fire.

CONSTITUTION (English) owes its foundation to the era of the conquest. William of Normandy having defeated Harold, and made himself master of the crown, subverted the ancient fabric of the Saxon legislation; he established the feudal system of government, as better adapted to rule his new subjects.

This system deposited the noble seeds of the spirit of liberty, union, and sober resistance. So early as the time of Edward, the laws which protect the person and property of the individual began to make their appearance; that admirable constitution, the result of a threefold power, insensibly arose; and the eye might even then discover the verdant summits of that fortunate region that was destined to be the seat of philosophy and liberty, which are inseparable companions. At the revolution, in 1688, care was taken to repair the breaches that had been made in the constitution, (for several had been made,) especially in the events following the reign of the two last Henries, as well as to prevent new ones. An advantage was taken of the rare opportunity of entering into an original, an express compact between king and people. It was determined that, to impose taxes without the consent of parliament, as well as to keep up a standing army in time of peace, was contrary to law. It was enacted, that the subject, of whatever rank or degree, had a right to present petitions to the king. Lastly, the key-stone was put to the arch, by the final establishment of the liberty of the press. These, and other claims and enactments, gave rise to the famous bill of rights. The revolu-

tion is therefore a grand epoch in the history of the constitution of England. At that time the Bill of Rights was passed, containing the following provisions:—1. That the pretended power of suspending of laws, or for the execution of laws, by legal authority, without consent of Parliament, is illegal:—2. That the pretended power of dispensing with laws, or the execution of laws by regal authority, as it hath been assumed and exercised of late, is illegal:—3. That the commission for erecting the late court of commissioners for ecclesiastical causes, and all other commissions and courts of like nature, are illegal and pernicious:—4. That levying money for, or to the use of the crown, by pretence of prerogative, without grant of Parliament, for longer time, or in all other manner than the same is or shall be granted, is illegal:—5. That it is the right of the subjects to petition the king, and that all commitments and prosecutions for such petitioning are illegal:—6. That the raising or keeping a standing army within the kingdom in time of peace, unless it be with consent of parliament, is against law:—7. That the subjects which are Protestants, may have arms for their defence, suitable to their conditions, and as allowed by law:—8. That election of Members of Parliament ought to be free:—9. That the freedom of speech, and debates or proceedings in Parliament, ought not to be impeached or questioned in any court or place out of parliament:—10. That excessive bail ought not to be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted:—11. That jurors ought to be duly impanelled, and returned; and that jurors which pass upon men in trials for high-treason, ought to be freeholders:—12. That all grants and promises of fines and forfeitures of particular persons, before conviction, are illegal and void:—13. And that for redress of all grievances, and for the amending, strengthening, and preserving of the laws, parliaments ought to be held frequently.

CONSUL, a magistrate at Rome, vested with regal authority for the

space of one year. There were two consuls, a *consulendo*, annually chosen in the Campus Martius. In the first ages of the republic, the two consuls were always chosen from the first patrician families, but the people obtained the privilege A. U. C. 388, of electing one of their consuls from their own body; and sometimes both were plebeians. Their authority was equal; yet the Valerian law gave the right of priority to the older, and the Julian law to him who had the most children, and he was generally called *consul major* or *prior*. As their power was absolute, they presided over the senate, and could convene and dismiss it at pleasure. The senators were their counsellors; and among the Romans, the manner of reckoning their years was by the names of the consuls, and by *M. Tull. Cicero* & *L. Antonio Consulibus*: for instance, the year of Rome 691 was always understood. This custom lasted from the year of Rome 244 till the year 1294, or 541st year of the Christian era, when the consular office was totally suppressed by Justinian. The two first consuls chosen about the middle of June A. U. C. 244, were L. Junius Brutus and L. Tarq. Collatinus. Collatinus retired from Rome, being of the family of the Tarquins, and Pub. Valerius was chosen in his room. When Brutus was killed in battle, Sp. Lucretius was elected to succeed him; and after the death of Lucretius, Marcus Horatius was chosen for the rest of the year, with Valerius Publicola. The first consulship lasted about sixteen months, during which the Romans fought against the Tarquins, and the capitol was dedicated. The two last consuls, chosen 723 A. U. C. were C. Cæsar Octavius III. and M. Valerius Messala Corrinus.

CONTI, (Armand de Bourbon, prince of,) quitted the ecclesiastical state for a military life; and sided with the mal-contents, in opposition to his brother the great Condé. In 1654, Conti was made governor of Guienne, general of the armies in Catalonia, and, in 1662, governor of Languedoc. He died in 1666.

COOK, (James), a celebrated

HISTORY.

navigator, was the son of a labourer, and born at Marton, a village in Yorkshire, Nov. 3. 1728. He was bound apprentice to a shop-keeper at Snaith, but on discovering an inclination for the sea, his master gave up his indentures, and he articulated himself for three years to a ship-owner at Whitby. He entered, in 1755, on-board the *Eagle* sixty-gun ship; and in 1759 he obtained a warrant as master of the *Mercury*, in which ship he was present at the taking of Quebec, where he made a draught of the channel and river of St. Lawrence. Mr. Cook was next appointed to the Northumberland, then employed in the recapture of Newfoundland; and there also he made a survey of the harbour and coasts. At the latter end of 1762 he returned to England, and married; and, early in the next year, he went again to Newfoundland, as surveyor, with Captain Graves; and he afterwards acted in the same capacity under sir Hugh Palliser. While thus employed, he made an observation of an eclipse of the sun, which he communicated to the Royal Society.

It being determined to send out astronomers to observe the transit of Venus in some part of the South Sea. Mr. Cook was selected to command the *Endeavour*, a ship taken up for that service, and accordingly he was promoted to the rank of lieutenant, May 25, 1768. After this, lieutenant Cook explored the neighbouring islands, and then shaped his course for New Zealand, which he circumnavigated, and thus ascertained that it was not a continent. From thence he sailed to New Holland, or, as it is now called New South Wales, where he anchored in Botany Bay, April 28, 1770, an epoch of great importance in the history of that part of the world. From hence he sailed to New Guinea, and next to Batavia, where the ship being refitted, he returned to Europe, and arrived in the Downs, June 12, 1771. The interest excited by this voyage, induced government to send captain Cook on another voyage of discovery to the southern hemi-

sphere, and he accordingly sailed with two ships, the *Resolution*, commanded by himself, and the *Adventure*, by captain Furneaux, April 9, 1772. After proceeding as far as seventy-one degrees ten minutes of south latitude, amidst mountains of ice, and discovering some new islands, our voyagers returned to England, July 30, 1775. The *Resolution* in this enterprise lost only one man out of her whole number, for which captain Cook was elected a member of the Royal Society, and afterwards the gold medal was voted to him by the same learned body. He was also appointed a post-captain, and promoted to a valuable situation in Greenwich hospital.

In July, 1776, he sailed again, to decide the long agitated question of a northern passage to the Pacific Ocean. In this voyage he had two ships, the *Resolution* and the *Discovery*; but, after sailing as high as seventy-four degrees forty-four minutes north, the object was considered impracticable; and on November 26, 1778, the ships arrived at the Sandwich islands. Here at first they were well received; but, at length, the people of Owhyhee stole one of the boats, to recover which captain Cook went on shore, with the intention of getting into his possession the person of the king, but in doing this a crowd assembled, and the brave commander, while in seeming amicable converse with the natives, and his back turned upon the ships, one of them with a club felled him to the ground, and before he could recover, another dispatched him with a dagger. The crews were in no way able to revenge his death, and they quitted the island, leaving the soul of the enterprise: his body was carried off in triumph and devoured. This event occurred on the 14th of February, 1779. Captain Cook left a widow and family; on the former, a pension of 300*l.* a-year was settled by the king, and twenty-five pounds a-year on each of the children.

COOPER (Anthony Ashly) earl of Shaftesbury, born in 1621. At the beginning of the troubles he inclined to the side of royalty,

but quitting it accepted a commission from the parliament. He opposed Cromwell with warmth, and contributed to the restoration of the king, for which he received numerous offices and honours. In 1667 he was sent to the Tower, and in 1681 he was tried for high-treason, and acquitted. He then went to Holland, where he died, in 1688.

COOTE (sir Byre), a celebrated general, who was born in 1726. He served against the rebels in 1745; and in 1754 distinguished himself in the East Indies, particularly at the siege of Pondicherry. In 1781 he defeated Hyder Ally with 10,000 men, though Hyder's forces amounted to 150,000. He died at Madras in 1783.

COPENHAGEN, the metropolis of Denmark, was formerly a mere fishing village, and in 1168 bishop Absalon having received the place and its territory, in gift from the king of Denmark, fortified the harbour, and built a castle, to defend the coast against the pirates, who swarmed in the Baltic. The inhabitants of the other part of Zealand preferring it, it gradually increased, and, thirty years afterwards, it received the privileges of a town, and, in 1443, became the principal residence of the court.

About the year 1700, Charles XII. prepared to besiege Copenhagen, but he desisted, on the payment of a large sum of money, and concluded a treaty of peace. Copenhagen has been greatly injured by several conflagrations. In 1728, seventy-seven streets were destroyed; its palace, with all its rich furniture, was destroyed by fire, Feb. 26, 1794, to the amount of twenty millions of rix-dollars, equal to 4,500,000*l.* sterling: and above 100 persons lost their lives. Its arsenal, admiralty, &c. with near fifty streets, having 1363 houses, were destroyed by fire, June 5, 1806.

In 1801, it was bombarded by the British under Lord Nelson. The immediate point of assault consisted of six Danish ships of the line, eleven floating-batteries, and several schooners. These were

supported by the islands called the Crowns, by four sail of the line moored in the mouth of the harbour, and by some batteries on the Isle of Amak. After an engagement, which was bravely contested on both sides, the Danish line of defence was completely destroyed, and the English fleet approached the city, threw bombs into the arsenal, and threatened the destruction of Copenhagen. At this moment lord Nelson sent out a flag-of-truce, and consented to a suspension of hostility. On the 2d of September, 1807, Copenhagen was again attacked by the English under lord Gambier. In the evening the batteries opened a tremendous fire on the town, and no proposals being sent on the two ensuing days, the firing, which had been slackened, was vigorously renewed on the fourth, but next morning the commandant of the garrison sent out a flag-of-truce.

A capitulation having been settled on the 8th, the British army took possession of the citadel, dock-yards, and batteries. The ships and vessels of war and naval stores, belonging to his Danish majesty, were then placed at the disposal of the British admiral. Eighteen ships of the line, fifteen frigates, and some smaller vessels, were captured, and, with the exception of one man-of-war, they were brought safe to England in the latter part of October.

CORDAY, (Charlotte), a young lady belonging to an ancient and respectable family of Caen in Normandy, who assassinated Marat on the 11th of July, 1793. She had heard details from the proscribed deputies, who had taken refuge in that city, which inspired her with the resolution to rid the world of this odious tyrant. She sought an interview, and found him busy in taking a bath. While she amused him with recounting the names of the deputies who were concealed in the place of her nativity, she drew her knife, and plunged it in his heart. This heroic female was guillotined, a few days after, with circumstances of peculiar barbarity.

HISTORY.

CORFE-CASTLE, in Dorsetshire, the scene of some of the foulest deeds in English history. Here Edward the Martyr was murdered, by direction of his step-mother, Elfrida. Here, also, king John ordered twenty-two prisoners to be starved to death; here Peter of Pontefract was imprisoned for prophesying the deposition of that tyrant. The castle was, however, more honourably distinguished by the defence made by lady Bankes, with a slender garrison, against the rebel army, in the time of Charles I. In a subsequent siege it was taken by the parliamentary forces, and, by order of parliament, its walls and towers were demolished.

CORFU, an island in the Mediterranean, known, in ancient history, by the names of Dressamun, Macris, Corcyra, &c. and now in the possession of the British.

CORINTH, an ancient city of Achaia, now called Corinto, situated on the middle of the Peloponnesian isthmus, at the distance of about sixty stadia, on either side, from the sea. It was first founded by Sisyphus, son of Æolus, A. M. 2616, and received its name from Corinthus the son of Pelops. The inhabitants were once powerful, and had great influence among the Grecian states. They colonized Syracuse in Sicily, and delivered it from the tyranny of its oppressors, by the means of Timoleon. Corinth was totally destroyed by L. Mummius, the Roman consul, and burnt to the ground, 146 B. C. The riches which the Romans found were immense. J. Cæsar planted a colony at Corinth, and endeavoured to raise it from its ruins, and restore it to its former grandeur. The government of Corinth was monarchical till 779 years B. C. when officers, called prytanes, were instituted. A battle was fought in its neighbourhood B. C. 395, and was called, from its contiguity, the Corinthian war. In 1451, A. D. it fell into the hands of the Turks.

CORIOLANUS, the surname of C. Martius, from his victory over Corioli. After a number of mili-

tary exploits, and many services to his country, he was ungratefully refused the consulship by the people, though they appeared to shew him some favour when he exhibited his scars and wounds, to procure his election. This raised his resentment; and when the Romans had received a present of corn, from Gelo king of Sicily, Coriolanus insisted that it should be sold for money, and not be given gratis. Upon this the tribunes raised the people against him for his imprudent advice, and even wished him to be put to death. This rigorous sentence was stopped by the influence of the senators, and Coriolanus submitted to a trial. He was banished by a majority of three tribunes; he then retired among the Volsci, to Attius Tullus, his greatest enemy, from whom he met a friendly reception. He advised him to make war against Rome, and he marched at the head of the Volsci as general. The approach of Coriolanus greatly alarmed the Romans, who sent him several embassies to reconcile him to his country, and to solicit his return. He was deaf to all proposals, and bade them prepare for war. He pitched his camp only at the distance of five miles from the city; and his enmity against his country would have been fatal, had not his wife Volturnia, and his mother Veturia, been prevailed upon, by the Roman matrons, to appease his resentment. The meeting of Coriolanus with his family was tender and affecting. He remained long inexorable; but at last the tears and intreaties of a mother and a wife prevailed over the stern and obstinate resolutions of an enemy, and Coriolanus marched the Volsci from the neighbourhood of Rome.

To shew their sense of Volturnia's merit and patriotism, the Romans dedicated a temple to female fortune. The behaviour of Coriolanus, however, displeased the Volsci. He was summoned to appear before the people of Antium; but the clamours which his ene-

mies raised, were so prevalent, that he was murdered at the place appointed for his trial, B. C. 488.

CORK, a city of Ireland, was built by the Danes in the sixth century. After the revolution in 1688, it was occupied by king James II., but was besieged and taken in 1690, by the then earl of Marlborough.

CORNWALLIS, (Charles, marquis,) was born in 1731; he entered into the army at a very early age, and continued to rise in his appointments until he was made aide-de-camp to the king. In the contest with America he displayed great military talents, took possession of Philadelphia, contributed to the reduction of South Carolina, and defeated general Gates with an inferior force. But, in 1781, he was under the necessity of surrendering to the united American and French army. He was then appointed governor-general of Bengal; and, in 1790, took Bangalore, which was followed by the defeat of Tippoo Saib, who delivered up to him his two sons as hostages. He was appointed to the lieutenancy of Ireland, he quelled the insurrection of 1798, defeated a French invading army, and effected a union of the two kingdoms. He again accepted the governorship of India, in 1805, but died soon after his arrival, while on his march to join the army at Ghazee-pore.

CORSICA, one of the largest islands in the Mediterranean, has been successively occupied by the Carthaginians, the Romans, the Goths, the Saracens, the Franks, the Pope, the Pisans, and the Genoese. On the 19th of June, 1794, the French were expelled, after some opposition, and the island was declared united to Great Britain; but the splendid victories of their countryman, Bonaparte, induced them to return once more to their allegiance to France. The English troops evacuated the island in 1796, and Corsica has since remained in possession of the French.

CORTES, (Hernando,) the conqueror of Mexico, was of respectable parentage, and had a relation for the governor of St. Domingo,

who gave him some posts of profit, and through him was recommended to superintend the expedition against Mexico. The preparations made for this great enterprize were eleven small ships, 617 men, (eleven only of whom had firelocks,) ten small field-pieces, and sixteen horses. With this small armament, constantly diminishing, and but inconsiderably re-inforced, he accomplished his object, and added the empire of Mexico to the kingdom of Spain. After defeating them at Tabasco, Cortes received many messengers and presents from the emperor, dissuading him from proceeding up the country. Cortes persisted, and having strengthened himself by an alliance with one of the neighbouring states, destroyed his ships and set forward. After several times defeating the Hascals without loss, and making them tributary to Spain, he pushed on to Mexico, and being met by Montezuma himself, seized the monarch, and actually held him in confinement till he was compelled to acknowledge himself a vassal of Spain. Cortes had now, however, other enemies to contend against. Nawatz having arrived, with directions to send him prisoner to Cuba, Cortes took the troops by a stratagem, and having gained over the soldiers, made a valuable addition to his army. In the mean time, Alvarado, who had been left at Mexico, by his barbarities occasioned the recommencement of hostilities, in which several Spaniards were slain. Cortes, feeling the disadvantage, brought out Montezuma upon the battlements to pacify his people; but they discharged a shower of arrows, and Montezuma fell, mortally wounded. Cortes was obliged to retire from Mexico at night, with the loss of half his men, and nearly all his baggage. In this condition he defeated an immense number of forces opposing his retreat, and waited for re-inforcements. With 550 men, forty horses, and a large body of Hascals, he again approached Mexico, and having taken Texeuco, the second city of the empire, laid siege to the capital. On the capture of

HISTORY.

Guatimazin, son of Montezuma, the city surrendered, and the empire of Mexico was at an end. At this juncture another commission arrived, to deprive Cortes of the command; he, however, eluded it, and obtained from Charles I. the appointment of governor of New Spain. He died in 1547, leaving children by a daughter of Montezuma.

CORUNNA, or **CORUNA**, a seaport of Spain, where the British army was attacked by Soult, in 1809. (See *Sir John Moore*.)

COSSACKS, the name of several warlike tribes, who inhabit the Ukraine, or the countries bordering on Russia, Poland, Little Tartary, and the north of Turkey. Under Sigismund III. attempts were made to abridge their liberties; this being resisted, it involved them in a war with Poland, which ended in their putting themselves under the protection of Russia, in 1634. They remained attached to Russia till 1706, when a considerable body of them went over to Charles XII. of Sweden. The cossacks of the Don have been in the service of Russia since 1579. The cossacks of the Volga are a branch of those of the Don. Their independence was recognized in 1734. The cossacks of the Bog received, in 1863, a constitution modelled on that of the cossacks of the Don. They are governed by an independent hetman.

COSSOVA, or **KOSSOVA**, a town of European Turkey, famous for a splendid victory obtained by Amurath II. over the united Hungarians, Walachians, Dalmatians, Albanians, and Triballians, in 1386. The victor was, however, killed the following day, as he walked over the field of battle, by a Triballian soldier, who lay concealed among the dead. In 1447, the Turks obtained another victory here, under Amurath II.

COTYS, the name of four kings of Thrace.—The first, contemporary with Philip, father of Alexander, was slain for his cruelties, about 356 B. C.—The second sent his son with 500 horse to the assistance of Pompey.—The third lived in the time of Augustus, and

was murdered by his uncle Rescuporis.—The fourth was the son of the last-mentioned, and ceded the kingdom to his cousin Rhœtalces, by order of Caligula, and had in exchange Little Armenia, and part of Arabia, A. D. 38.

COUNCILS,—at Antioch, 269; at Aries, 314, at which three English bishops were present; the first Nicene one, when 328 fathers attended, against Arius, 325; the first at Constantinople, when Pope Damasus presided, and 150 fathers attended, 381; that at Sardis, when 376 fathers attended, 400; the first at Ephesus, when Pope Celestine presided, and 200 fathers attended, 431; that at Chalcedon, when Pope Leo presided, and 600 fathers attended, 451; the second at Constantinople, when Pope Virgilius presided, and 165 fathers attended, 552; one called the Milevetan council, 566; at Constantinople in 600; at Rome in 649; the third at Constantinople, when Pope Agatho presided, and 299 fathers attended, 680; the second at Nice, when Pope Adrian presided, and 350 fathers attended, 787; the fourth at Constantinople, when Pope Adrian presided, and 101 fathers attended, 869; that at Vercellus, when Pope Leo IX. presided, 1053; the Lateran one, when Pope Calixtus II. presided, and 300 fathers attended, 1112; the second Lateran one, when Pope Innocent II. presided, and 1000 fathers attended, 1139; the third Lateran one, when Pope Alexander III. presided, and 300 fathers attended, 1175; the fourth Lateran one, when Pope Innocent III. presided, and 1185 fathers attended, 1215 and 1217; at Lyons, 1255 and 1274; that at Vienna, when Pope Clement V. presided, and 300 fathers attended, 1311; one at Constance, when Pope John XXII. and Martin V. presided, 1414; the sixth Lateran one, when Pope Julian III. and Pius IV. presided against Luther, 1546.—There have been several other provincial councils, and others, as that of Avignon, in France, and at Bitaria, in Tuscany, 1431; at Tours, in France, 1448; at Florence, in Italy, 1449; at Toledo, in Spain, 1473; at Aspargh, in Germany, 1546; at

Cologne, in Germany, 1548; at Treves, in Germany, 1548; at Cologne, in Germany, 1549; at Mentz, in Almaine, 1549; and at Numan-tia, in Spain, 1560.

CRASSUS, (Marcus Licinius,) acquired immense riches by dealing in slaves. When Ciuna filled Rome with his cruelties, he went to Spain, and from thence to Africa, where he served under Sylla. He was sent against the revolted gladiators, who were headed by Spartacus. In this battle 12,000 of the slaves were killed, and Crassus was honoured with an ovation. He served as consul with Pompey, and entertained the Roman populace at 10,000 tables. He accepted the government of Syria, where he was slain by the Parthians, B. C. 53.

CRAYFORD, a town of England, in the county of Kent, where a decisive battle was fought in 457, when Hengist defeated prince Vortimer, and thus acquired the sovereignty of Kent.

CRECY, or **CRESSY**, the famous battle of, fought between the English and French, in 1346. Edward III. of England, accompanied by the prince of Wales, surnamed the Black Prince, from the colour of his armour, had landed in France with the design of invading Normandy, but being unexpectedly opposed in his progress towards Rouen, proceeded by a secret and rapid march towards Flanders. In this attempt, likewise, he was repeatedly attacked and annoyed by the enemy, who had assembled to oppose him, and he saw himself compelled to come to a general engagement, for which he prepared with coolness and judgment. He chose his ground with advantage, near the village of Crecy; drew up his army on a gentle ascent, and divided them into three lines; the first was commanded by the prince of Wales, and under him by the earls of Warwick and Oxford; the earls of Arundel and Northampton were at the head of the second line; and he remained with the third division himself. His flanks were secured by trenches, and, according to some historians, several pieces of cannon were placed

in the front. While the English inspired by the skill and countenance of their sovereign, awaited with steady composure the charge of the French; the latter, burning with resentment, and only afraid lest their prey should escape them, pressed forward without order or obedience; and they arrived in presence of the English, imperfectly formed, and fatigued by their imprudent haste. The first line, consisting of 15,000 Genoese cross-bow-men, was commanded by Anthony Doria, and Charles Grimaldi; the second was led by the count of Alençon, brother to the king. Philip himself was at the head of the third, accompanied by the kings of Bohemia, of the Romans, and of Majorca, with all the nobility and great vassals of the crown of France. Impatient of controul, and confident in their own strength, the French army commenced the attack at three o'clock in the afternoon, when a conflict the most fierce and bloody perhaps ever recorded by the page of history, took place. The intrepid courage of Edward, prince of Wales, who, though a stripling, performed prodigies of valour, and decided the fortune of the day. The battle became, for some time, hot and bloody; and the earl of Warwick, apprehensive of the event from the superior numbers of the French, dispatched a messenger to the king, and entreated him to send succours to the relief of the prince. Edward had chosen his station on the top of the hill; and surveyed in tranquillity the scene of action. When the messenger accosted him, his first question was, whether the prince was slain or wounded? On receiving an answer in the negative, "Return," said he, "to my son, and tell him that I reserve the honour of the day to him; I am confident that he will show himself worthy of the honour of knighthood, which I so lately conferred upon him; he will be able, without my assistance, to repel the enemy." This speech being reported to the prince and his attendants, inspired them with fresh courage; they made an attack with redoubled

HISTORY.

vigour on the French, in which the count of Alençon was slain: the whole line of cavalry was thrown into disorder; the riders were killed or dismounted; the Welsh infantry rushed into the throng, and, with their knives, cut the throats of all those who had fallen; nor was any quarter given by the victors. In this bloody, decisive, and memorable engagement, which lasted till dark, the king of France had himself a horse killed under him. The whole French army took to flight, and was followed by the enemy, till the darkness of the night put an end to the pursuit. The king, on their meeting, flew into the arms of the prince of Wales, and exclaimed: "My brave son! persevere in your honourable career; you are my son, for valiantly have you quitted yourself this day: you have shown yourself worthy of empire."

CREQUI, (Charles de,) prince of Foix and duke de Lesdigueres, remarkable for his exploits in Savoy and against the Spaniards. He was killed at the siege of Bremen in 1639, aged sixty.

CREQUI, (Francis, marquis de,) defeated Charles V. duke of Lorraine, in Alsace, and took Luxembourg, and several other important places. He died in 1687, aged sixty-three.

CRETE, an island in the Mediterranean, the ancient inhabitants of which were the Idæi Dactyli, and Curetes. In 68 B. C. the whole of the island became subject to the Roman empire; the Saracens conquered it in 812, but the Greeks recovered it in 954. When Constantinople was taken by the Latins in 1204, this island fell into the hands of the Venetians; but, in 1645, the Turks took it from them, except the capital, and it surrendered in 1669.

CRILLON, (Louis de Berthou de,) a celebrated commander, was born of an illustrious family in the comtat Venaisin, in 1541. He entered into the military profession at fifteen, and distinguished himself at the siege of Calais: as he afterwards did against the Hugonots; and next at the battle of

Lepanto, where he was wounded. There was, indeed, no action of importance, in which he was not present; and, in 1592, he successfully defended Villebois, where he replied to the summons of the besiegers, "Crillon is within, and the enemy without." He died in 1615. One day, being at a sermon where the sufferings of Christ were pathetically described, he clapped his hand to his sword, and exclaimed, "Where wert thou, Crillon?"

CRILLON-MAHON, (the duke de,) a celebrated general, who distinguished himself in the seven years' war, and afterwards quitted the French service for that of Spain, where he was made a grandee of the first rank. He commanded at the famous siege of Gibraltar, where he was defeated by the superior talents of general Elliot. In 1783 he took Minorca, and assumed the surname of Mahon, the name of the capital of that island. He died at Madrid in 1796, aged eighty.

CRIM-TARTARY.—The ancient Bosphorus, inhabited by the Tauri, Seythæ; and the peninsula, which makes a principal part of it, was called Chersonesus Taurica. It was governed by its own kings, one of whom, named Pharnaces, was defeated by Cæsar, 47 B. C. This country, however, was never subject to the Romans. In 1266 the Genoese took Caffa from the Tartars, who had not held it long. In 1471 it was taken from them by Mohammed II., who settled in it Mengheli Kerai, who had been one of the khans of Kipjack, when that country was conquered by the Russians. From that time, it remained in subjection to the Turks, till the year 1771, when it was reduced by the Russians; and at the peace between the Russians and Turks, in 1774, was declared independent. Subsequently to this it was annexed to Russia, of which it has remained a part ever since the peace of 1791, by the name of the viceroyalty of Taurida.

CROMWELL, (Oliver,) a character of considerable note in the English history, was born of a good family at Huntingdon, in

1560, and educated first at the grammar-school in that town, and then at Sidney-college, Cambridge, where his conduct was very dissipated. From the university he removed to Lincoln's-inn, where he addicted himself to pleasure and gaming. At twenty-one he married Elizabeth, daughter of sir James Bouchier, of Essex, and, about the same time, turned puritan.

In 1625 he was elected into parliament, and again in 1628, where he distinguished himself by his zeal against the bishops. He then took a farm, which not answering, he resolved to go to New England, but was, with others, prevented by a proclamation; he removed to Ely, and acquired celebrity by his gifts in prayer and preaching. In 1640 he was returned for Cambridge, and was noted as a frequent speaker, vulgar and vehement, always opposing the court, and attacking the church. In 1642, hostilities were determined upon. Cromwell went to Cambridge, raised his troop of horse, and behaved with great inhumanity to the loyal members of the university. He soon acquired the rank of colonel, and, by the superior courage of his troops, procured for them, at the battle of Marston-moor, the name of Ironsides; and for himself, at the second battle of Newbury, the title of Saviour of the Nation. He had now gained so great an influence, that when the famous self-denying ordinance was passed, by which all members of either house were excluded from commands in the army, Cromwell was particularly excepted. —He was, soon after, constituted Lieutenant-general, and by his skill and courage the battle of Naseby was gained in 1645, which decided the fate of the royalists. This victory was followed by a series of successes, for which he was voted a pension of 2000*l.* per annum, and the thanks of the house. The king was betrayed by the Scotch to the parliament. Cromwell contrived to get him into his own power; he then turned out of the house those members who were not likely to be gained over to his purpose, so

that no obstacle remained to the murder of the king. He acted in this with great address, was present at the trial, and signed the warrant of execution. After suppressing a mutiny in the army, Cromwell, in 1649, went to Ireland, which he subdued, and, leaving Ireton as deputy, returned to England in 1650. Being appointed commander-in-chief against the Scots, who had armed to restore Charles II., he gained, September 3, 1650, the battle of Dunbar; and that day twelvemonth defeated him at Worcester. He now began his favourite project, by moulding the army to his will; he then, at one stroke, dismissed the parliament, and dissolved the council-of-state; after which, he called one, composed of his officers. He next convened a mock representation of the nation, consisting of 142 persons, who being his own creatures, agreed to resign their authority. On this the council of officers declared him protector of the commonwealth of England, Scotland, and Ireland. The following year he called a parliament, but finding the members refractory, he made each member take an oath of allegiance to him, and, after sitting five months, dissolved them. In the war between England and Spain, in 1655, Jamaica was taken, and Blake gained several splendid victories; one consequence of which was, an alliance between the protector and France, and the delivery of Dunkirk to England, after its being taken by the united forces of the two countries. In 1656 another parliament confirmed his title, and sanctioned his proceedings. Finding the title of king unattainable, he wisely abandoned it; however, he had the privilege granted him to make a sort of house of lords; and was inaugurated with the pomp of a coronation in Westminster-hall. In 1658 he convened the two houses, and addressed them in the language usual by the kings of England. Finding that he could not form any thing like a regular establishment, he dissolved the assembly. In August of that year, his favourite daugh-

HISTORY.

ter, Mrs. Claypole, died, bitterly reproaching him for his conduct. Colonel Titus published a pamphlet, entitled *Killing no Murder*, to prove his assassination a public duty.

These circumstances are supposed to have produced a slow fever, of which he died September 8, 1638. His corpse was interred in Henry the Seventh's chapel, from whence at the Restoration it was taken and exposed on, and afterwards buried under, the gallows at Tyburn.

CROMWELL, (Thomas,) earl of Essex, was the son of a blacksmith at Putney, in Surrey, and was born about 1490. Early in life he became clerk to the English factory at Antwerp, which situation he left and went to Italy, where he bore arms under the duke of Bourbon, and was present at the sacking of Rome. On his return home he was taken into the service of cardinal Wolsey, by whose interest he obtained a seat in the house of commons. When the cardinal fell, Cromwell became a servant of the king, was raised to the office of chancellor of the exchequer, and, in 1534, made secretary-of-state, and master of the rolls; about which time, he was also elected chancellor of Cambridge. The next year he was appointed visitor-general of the monasteries. In 1536, he was made lord-privy-seal, and the same year advanced to the peerage by the title of lord Cromwell; and the papal supremacy being abolished, he was nominated the king's vicar-general in the convocation. In 1537 he was appointed chief-justice itinerant of all the forests beyond Trent, elected knight of the garter, and made dean of Wells. To these honours were added the grant of many manors after the dissolution of the monasteries, and, in 1539, he was created earl of Essex. Soon after his good fortune declined as fast as it had risen. His ruin was hastened by the marriage which he projected between Henry and Anne of Cleves, and he was sent to the Tower, where he was deserted by all his friends except Cranmer, who, however, could

not save him from the scaffold, where he suffered with fortitude, July 28, 1540.

CRÆSUS, king of Lydia, who brought the Greeks into subjection to the Lydians. His name is rendered proverbial by his prodigious wealth. Cyrus, king of Persia; defeated him, B. C. 548, and commanded him to be burnt alive. He preserved his life by repeating, in the hearing of Cyrus, Solon's words, "No man was happy until death, he then imagined himself the happiest because the richest man."

CRUSADES, the name given to several expeditions sent out to recover the possession of Palestine from the Saracens. They owed their rise solely to the enthusiasm of a wandering pilgrim, called Peter the Hermit, who, having experienced the tyrannical exactions imposed on the visitors of the holy sepulchre, represented them to pope Urban II. in such lively colours, that that prelate chose him as the instrument of a grand design he had formed to overthrow the Mohammedan power; and Peter, armed with the holy commission, went from province to province to kindle up that enthusiasm with which he was himself consuming.

When the feelings of the people and of the potentates were ripe for some wild project, Urban held a council in the open fields at Placentia, and proposed his scheme, which was warmly applauded, but not as warmly embraced. Another council was therefore held at Clermont, and the result was, that the French were stimulated to take arms. The pope held out to them the promise of spiritual pardon, and imposed upon them only the penance of plunder for their sins. Thus excited, the enthusiasm became general; noblemen sold their estates for outfits; the meanest lords of manors set out at their own expence; the poor gentlemen followed them as esquires; and above 80,000 men ranged themselves at Constantinople, under the banners of Peter the Hermit.

Their first exploit was the siege

and storm of a Christian city of Hungary, which had refused to furnish them with provisions, and the enormities which followed were such as to rouse the vengeance of the populace, who fell upon them with such fury, that scarcely 20,000 reached their original rendezvous, and those in the most pitiable extremity. Thus perished the first army of crusaders.

The second, under a German ecclesiastic, named Godescalus, shared the same fate, and in the same kingdom, though probably from less provocation. And the third, composed of more than 20,000 persons, of all ages, sexes, ranks, and conditions, who set out upon the principle of extermination, which they to a most horrible extent executed upon the Jews, found their grave also in Hungary. Not one of all these holy warriors was permitted to see the promised land.

But the zeal of a religious fanatic, was not to be extinguished with the extinction of armies. Peter, after many difficulties, and many flagrant outrages, at length found himself at the head of a Christian army, and within reach of the Infidels. They did not however wait for him. Solyman, the sultan of Nice, fell with his disciplined troops upon this dispersed multitude, and Peter's lieutenant, with many of the poor nobility, were slain. The solitary's better fortune returned him to Constantinople, where he seems to have dropped into his proper sphere, being regarded and compassionated as a lunatic. This, however, was not the case with all the chiefs, some of them had more policy, less enthusiasm, and were more accustomed to command and lead better disciplined troops. Godfrey, of Bouillon, was at the head of 70,000 foot, and 10,000 horse, armed *cap-a-pée*, were under the banners of many lords who ranged themselves under his standard.

Mean time, Hugh, brother to Philip I. of France, and Robert, duke of Normandy, the one a needy, the other a powerful prince,

with Raymond, count of Toulouse, and Bohemond, king of Sicily, severally left their states, and confederated against the Ottoman arms. A proposal was made to the pope, to put himself at their head; but he refused.

The behaviour of these armed bands, even to their friends, was arrogant in the extreme. Their demands of provisions were consequently refused by the Greeks, which occasioned continual skirmishes between the natives and Godfrey's army, and animosities proceeded to such length, that Godfrey attacked the suburbs of the emperor. The passions of all the princes were inflamed against each other, and the cause of the cross seemed quite lost from the recollection of the pious wranglers. At length, however, the moderation of Alexius composed their differences, and on very easy conditions that emperor conveyed them into Asia, where the army was reviewed and found to consist of 100,000 horse, and 600,000 foot; making the total of the Christian armies, from the commencement of the crusades, more than a million. With this force they held on their way, trampled down the disproportioned, though spirited and repeated resistance of Solyman, (the sultan of Syria,) and his son, and took Nice. Neither Turks nor Arabians could at first sustain the shock of such multitudes cased in iron, nor of their large horses, nor of the forests of lances, which they every where presented. Bohemond obtained from the conquerors an assignment of Antioch, and Baldwin penetrated into Mesopotamia, took the city of Edessa, and formed there a small state.

They at length reached the sacred climax of their enterprize, and laid siege to Jerusalem. The disadvantages of the besiegers are magnified by the historians of that day beyond all present credibility. The holy city was, however, on the 5th of July, 1099, after five weeks' siege, taken by storm, and all who were not Christians were massacred. Peter was present at both transactions. The most horrible cruelties and atrocities that

HISTORY.

can stain the page of history were perpetrated, after which, the army marched in procession, and wept over the sepulchre of Christ. Godfrey of Bouillon was (not without opposition from the priests,) elected duke of Jerusalem; but D'Amberto, a legate, assumed the title of king, and the duke received from his possessions in Palestine but a light equivalent for the patrimony he had expended in obtaining them.

Another sacred expedition, not reckoned among the number of the crusades, took place a few years afterwards, under prince Hugh, wherein, at a rational calculation, 200,000 men were lost to Europe. Those who landed in Asia were destroyed by Soliman, and Hugh died, almost deserted, in Asia Minor.

Some time afterwards Baldwin, king of Jerusalem, was taken, almost at the gates of the city, by a Turkish prince. Edessa was retaken, and Jerusalem threatened. In these perilous circumstances, the Christians of Asia solicited a new crusade.

France again gave the impulse to this superstitious excitation. Pope Eugenius III. induced St. Bernard, of Clervaux, to act the part of Peter, and he became the oracle, not only of France, but of Europe, and exhibited with Louis the young a scene not unlike that of Urban. There were also personal reasons to operate with that monarch's superstition, and he set out for Palestine, accompanied by his young wife, Eleanor of Guienne. St. Bernard had sufficient prudence to avoid the disgraces and disasters of his predecessor, and declining the election of the assembly at Chartres, to lead the holy army, placed the red cross with due solemnity in the hands of Courad III. The confidence of victory was so prevalent, that no fewer than 70,000 men, in complete armour, were reckoned in the army of either prince, besides a prodigious number of light-horse and infantry. Their march was marked by the same excesses, and by some severer consequences, a considerable portion being

swept off by the plague. Conrad, instigated by jealousy, separated from his colleague, and was defeated by the sultan of Jesnium with immense slaughter. Himself, with a few troops, fled towards Antioch, thence to Jerusalem as a pilgrim, and returned to Europe almost alone. Louis encountered the same ill-fortune; besides the bitterest domestic inquietude from the unfaithfulness of his wife, and the dissolution of his marriage, he lost to France the province of Guienne, to add to that of the most flourishing army that his country had ever set on foot.

The divisions which increased among the Christians of Asia, on these disasters, were not calculated to support their decaying power. And they had now to contend with no ordinary genius. Saladin nearly demolished it at a stroke, Jerusalem fell before his arms, and Guy of Lusignan, with all his army, became the prisoners of the victor. The Christians lost all they possessed in Asia, except Antioch, Tripoli, Joppa, and the city of Tyre. Thus ended the second Crusade.

The increasing successes of Saladin excited the observation of all Europe. England and France tythed their subjects for the outfit of another armament, and a rival to Saladin started in the person of Barbarossa. He headed an army of 150,000 men, and after forcing his way through Greece, then in hostility, defeated the sultan of Cogni in two engagements, which, however, reduced his army to 8,000 men, whom these, on his death, his son the duke of Swabia conducted to Antioch, to join king Guy, who, in violation of his oath, was meditating an attack on Saladin. After fighting many indecisive battles, he lost his life near Ptolemais.

Philip Augustus, of France, and Richard Cœur-de-Lion, of England, brought, however, fresh crusaders and fresh victims. They sat down before Ptolemais with 500,000 men. Saladin was absent, and Ptolemais was taken, but the success was unimproved. Philip, jealous of the ascendancy of Richard, withdrew,

and left to his rival the conduct of the campaign. In a battle near Oesarea, Richard's personal prowess obtained him the glory of dismounting Saladin, perhaps the only advantage he gained in this memorable expedition. The remnant of the army returned (1191), with more, perhaps, of glory than could have been expected, but with its usual success.

On the death of Saladin, a crusade was formed under the guidance of Baldwin earl of Flanders. This was different from all the preceding: for their direct object appears to have been to seize Constantinople, and destroy the empire of the west. In the former object, at least, they succeeded. Taking advantage of the divisions which their continual visits assisted to foment, they entered, almost without resistance, put every one they met to the sword, and gave scope to all the excess of avarice and fury, extravagance and profanation. The churches were pillaged, and the French danced with the ladies in the church of St. Sophia. Thus, was Constantinople taken and sacked by Christians, who had vowed to direct their arms only against infidels. Baldwin made himself emperor, and ordered his rival claimant, Murxuphus, to be thrown from a high column. His empire was, however, a divided one. The Venetians having taken Peloponnesus, Candia, and many cities on the coast of Phrygia; and the marquis of Montferrat Thessaly; little was left for Baldwin besides Thrace and Mesia. Even these he did not long enjoy, being defeated near Adrianople, by an army combined of Greeks, Turks, and Bulgarians, who cut off his limbs, and left him a prey to wild beasts.

The titular sovereign of Jerusalem dying about this time, a successor was nominated by Philip of France, at the request of the bishop of Ptolemais. The new king, a younger son of the house of Guienne, with several princes and very numerous troops, forming together a formidable army, with another under the count of Holland and several bishops, making

a total of 100,000 men, arrived at Ptolemais; and, in a few days, commenced the siege of Damietta. During this siege, which lasted two years, an enthusiast, known under the name of St. Francis, of Assisi, made an absurd attempt to convert Meledin, the nephew of the great Saladin. On the capture of the city, a claim was made by Pelagius, the legate, to superintend, for his master, the affairs of Palestine; and, having assumed the function of commander, entangled the army between two branches of the Nile, at the time when that river began to overflow its banks. The sultan seized the advantage, and deluging the camp on one side, burnt their vessels on the other. In this extremity they were obliged to make terms with the sultan, which were to restore Damietta, to forbear all hostilities for eight years, and to give up John De Brienne as hostage. He then sent them into Phenicia.

Frederic II., a politic prince, who, in his marriage with Brienne's daughter, had received the kingdom of Jerusalem as a dowry, recovered it by a dextrous negotiation with the sultan; and thus contrived to keep terms with the pope, while he enjoyed the fame of recovering the holy city without a drop of blood. Brienne himself, by an amazing revolution of fortune, was made emperor of the west. But both states were quickly swept away by the overwhelming victories of Jenghis Khan, and the previous influx of other barbarians, whom his approach drove forward. The Teutonic knights and those of St. John attempted to stem the tide, but in vain. Fresh Turks came to ravage the coasts of Syria, and exterminated almost all that were left. The Christians, shut up in the few maritime towns which remained to them, found no assistance from the neighbouring Christian princes. The possession of Ptolemais was disputed by various factions, few pilgrims arrived to succour their distressed brethren, and all hopes of eastern triumph were extinguished.

It was at this time that Louis

HISTORY.

undertook the last crusade. He had, it is said, while in a trance, heard a voice which ordered him to take up the cross against the infidels; and scarce had he recovered his speech, when he made a vow to carry on a crusade. The two queens, his mother, and wife, his council, and all about him, were sensible of the danger of this fatal vow; but Louis considered it as a sacred bond, which men were not permitted to unloose. He prepared four years for this expedition; and, leaving the government of the kingdom to his mother, he set out with his wife, attended by his three brothers with their wives, and almost all the knights in France, among whom were near 3000 knights bannerets.

Louis put into Cyprus, where the king of that island joined them. They landed in Egypt at the time the sultan of the country was not in possession of Jerusalem. The Christians were still in possession of Ptolemais, Tyre, Antioch, and Tripoli; but, by their divisions, were continually in danger of being a prey, either to the Turkish sultans, or to the Khouarazmians.

Melecsala, sultan of Egypt, grown old and sick, demanded a peace, which was refused. Louis, though reinforced by fresh succours from France, consisting of 60,000 fighting men, lost one half of this flourishing army by sickness, and the other half by a defeat near Massoura. His brother, Robert of Artois, fell in the engagement, and he was himself taken prisoner, with his two other brothers, the count of Anjou and the count of Poitiers. Melecsala was succeeded by Almoadan his son; Louis offered him a million of besants in gold, for his own and his fellow-prisoners' ransom, but Almoadan generously forgave him a fifth part. This sultan was afterwards murdered by the mamelukes. The emirs demanded no more than 800,000 besants, to which the sultan had limited the ransom of the captives; and, in virtue of the treaty, the French troops in Damietta evacuated the city; the conquerors committed no

outrage on the women, but dismissed the queen, and her sisters-in-law, with marks of respect. The Mohaumedan soldiers, however, behaved with much less moderation.

St. Louis retired to Palestine, and stayed there near four years with the remains of his fleet and army. He at length repaired to his own dominions, only to form a new crusade. Clement IV. granted him a tenth penny out of the revenues of the clergy for three years, and he departed a second time, with nearly the same force as before. But his devotion led him to turn his arms, neither to the coast of Palestine, nor to that of Egypt: he directed his fleet towards Tunis. His brother, whom he made king of Sicily, was to follow him. This ambitious, cruel, and selfish prince, made the heroic piety of Louis subservient to his private views, by pretending that the king of Tunis owed him some arrears of tribute. He desired the sovereignty of that country, and St. Louis hoped to make a convert of the king of Tunis! He landed his forces near the ruins of Carthage, but was himself soon besieged in his camp, by the united forces of the Moors. The distemper, which ravaged his camp in Egypt, desolated his Carthaginian camp; and one of his sons died of the contagion. It at length attacked the king, who caused himself to be laid in the dust, and expired at the age of fifty-five, with the piety of a saint, and the courage of a hero.—The most remarkable instances of the caprice of fortune then happened; that the ruins of Carthage should behold a Christian resigning his last breath, who had come to fight the Mohammedans in a country where Dido introduced the Syrian gods. Scarcely was he dead, when his brother, the king of Sicily, arrived. He concluded a peace with the Moors; and brought back the remains of the Christians to Europe.

Thus finished the last crusade, in which cannot be reckoned less than 150,000 persons to have been sacrificed: add this to the

numbers that perished in the former expeditions, and it will be found that the east was the tomb of above two millions of Europeans. Several countries were depopulated and impoverished by these expeditions. The Genoese, the Pisans, and especially the Venetians, were enriched by them; but France, England, and Germany, were exhausted; and the only advantage they procured was the liberty which many boroughs purchased of their lords. In the mean time, the small number of Christians, cantoned on the coast of Syria, were soon exterminated or made slaves. Ptolemais, their principal asylum, which was nothing better than a nest of banditti, could not resist the forces of Melecseraph, sultan of Egypt, who took it in the year 1291. Tyre and Sydon surrendered to him also: in a word, towards the end of the twelfth century, there was not the least trace remaining in Asia of the numerous emigrations of Christians.

CUBA, the largest of the West India islands, was discovered by Columbus, in 1492. In 1511 it was conquered by the Spaniards, under Don Jago de Valasquez, by whom, after the mines had been opened, and it was found that there was little to be expected from them, the natives were gradually exterminated. In 1741, an ill-contrived expedition was fitted out by the English government for the conquest of this island, but no offensive operations were undertaken. In 1762, one of the most formidable squadrons sailed from England for this purpose. After a vigorous resistance, on the part of the Spaniards, and the most courageous perseverance on the part of the British, the city of Havanna was compelled to capitulate, on the 13th of August. The plunder obtained by the British was immense. By the treaty of 1763, Cuba was restored to the Spaniards in exchange for the Floridas. Since then it has remained a Spanish island.

CUDGWA, a town of Hindostan, near which were fought two memorable battles; the first, between

two brothers, sultan Shuja and Aurungzebe, in 1659; and the other between Ferrokhsere and Jehander Shah, in 1712, by which the former prince obtained the throne of Hindostan.

CULEXIMBO, king of Loango, was a man of courage and impetuosity. His disposition was yet gentle and humane, and he could not be prevailed upon to eat the flesh, or drink the blood, of men. In consequence of which, he was assassinated, to appease, as was said, the manes of Temban-dumba.

CULLODEN, battle of, between the armies of the duke of Cumberland and the Pretender, on the 16th of April, 1746. The engagement commenced about one o'clock in the afternoon. The highlanders, trusting to their success at Preston Pans, rushed on with their broadswords and axes; but the royal troops being prepared for this mode of fighting, received them with fixed bayonets, and kept up a continual firing, by platoons, which did great execution, while the cannon of the Pretender was badly served, and ill-directed. The highlanders, however, stood the fire of the English for some time; but, being impatient for a closer engagement, about 500 of them attacked the British left-wing with such impetuosity, that the first line was disordered by the onset. Two battalions advancing, however, to support it, galled the enemy by a terrible and close discharge, and the dragoons under Hawley, and the Argyleshire militia, at the same time, pulling down a park wall, which guarded the rebel's flank, fell upon them, and made a horrible slaughter. In a few minutes they were totally routed, and the field covered with their wounded and slain, to the number of 3000. Immense numbers, too, were slaughtered in the pursuit, orders having been given to shew no quarter.

CUMBERLAND, (William, duke of,) second son of George II. was born in 1721. He was wounded at the battle of Dettingen. He commanded the British army at the battles of Fontenoy and Val, which were lost through the cowardice

HISTORY.

of the Dutch troops. In 1746, he defeated the Pretender at Culloden.

CUMMIN, (John,) regent of Scotland, led the Scots against the English army in the reign of Edward I. and routed them after an obstinate combat. The Scots extended their successes to the banks of the Tweed; and rendered it necessary for Edward to begin anew the conquest of their kingdom. Cummin was, however, soon compelled to submit to the authority of Edward. On the dissolution of the assembly of Scottish nobility, in which Cummin had acted a conspicuous part, he was stabbed by Bruce as he passed through the cloisters of Greyfriars. This happened in the year 1306.

CUNASDORF, battle of, between the Russians and Prussians, in 1759. The Russians having made themselves masters of Frankfort, on the Oder, entrenched themselves at Cunasdorf with 80,000 men. The king of Prussia's army did not amount to more than 50,000, yet with these he ventured to attack the enemy, and, after a furious conflict of six hours, forced the intrenchments with great slaughter, and took seventy pieces of cannon. The Russian general, however, having rallied his disordered troops on an eminence, repelled the attack of the Prussians in their advance, and finally put them to the rout; 30,000 men were left dead on the field, two-thirds were Prussians. In this dreadful engagement the king of Prussia had two horses shot under him, and his clothes were pierced with musket-balls: twelve generals were either killed or wounded, and all Frederic's artillery fell into the hands of the enemy.

CURIUS DENTATUS MARCUS ANNIUS, a Roman consul, famous for his fortitude and frugality. He gained several victories, and defeated Pyrrhus. The Samnite ambassadors found him boiling some vegetables for his dinner, yet he refused their bribes. He died 272 B. C.

CUTTS (John, lord), an English general, was born at Matching in

Essex. He entered early into the army, under the duke of Monmouth; and afterwards went into the service of the duke of Lorraine in Hungary, where he distinguished himself at the taking of Buda. He accompanied king William to England, and, in 1690, was created an Irish peer. On the accession of queen Anne he was first made lieutenant-general of the forces in Holland, and afterwards in Ireland; but being deprived of that military command, the mortification affected him so much that he died in 1707.

CYAXARES I. king of the Medes, succeeded his father Phraortes, 635 B. C. He became very powerful, and subdued all Asia beyond the river Halys. He died B. C. 585.

CYCLADES, a name given to certain islands of the Ægean sea, particularly those that surround Delos, as with a circle. They were about fifty-three in number, the principal of which were Ceos, Naxos, Andros, Paros, Melos, Seriphus, Gyarus, Tenedos, &c. The Cyclades were reduced under the power of Athens by Miltiades; but during the invasion of Greece by the Persians, they revolted from their ancient and natural allies.

CYNÆGIRUS, an Athenian, celebrated for his extraordinary courage. He was brother to the poet Æschylus. After the battle of Marathon, he pursued the flying Persians to their ships, and seized one of their vessels with his right hand, which was immediately severed by the enemy. He detained the vessel with his left hand, and when he lost that also, he still kept his hold with his teeth.

CYRUS, king of Persia, and son of Cambyses and Mandane, daughter of Astyages. He was exposed as soon as born; but was preserved by a shepherdess, who educated him as her own son. As he was playing with his equals in years, he was elected king in a certain diversion, and he exercised his power with such an independent spirit, that he ordered one of his companions to be severely whipped for disobedience.

C Y R—D A M

The father of the boy, who was a nobleman, complained to the king of the ill-treatment which his son had received from a shepherd's son; Astyages ordered Cyrus before him, and discovered that he was Mandane's son, from whom he had so much to apprehend. He treated him with great coldness; and Cyrus, unable to bear his tyranny, escaped from his confinement, and began to levy troops to dethrone his grandfather. He was assisted and encouraged by the ministers of Astyages, who were displeased with his oppression. He marched against him, and Astyages was defeated in a battle, and taken prisoner, B. C. 552. From this victory the empire of Media became tributary to the Persians. Cyrus subdued the eastern parts of Asia, and made war against Croesus, king of Lydia, whom he conquered, B. C. 548. He invaded the kingdom of Assyria, and took the city of Babylon by drying the channels of the Euphrates, and marching his troops through the bed of the river, while the people were celebrating a grand festival. He afterwards marched against Tomyris, the queen of the

Massagetae, a Scythian nation, but was defeated in a bloody battle, B. C. 530. The victorious queen, who had lost her son in a previous encounter, was so incensed against Cyrus, that she cut off his head, and threw it into a vessel filled with human blood; crying, "*Satis te sanguine quem sisti.*"

CYRUS the Younger, was the son of Darius Nothus, and brother of Artaxerxes. On the death of his father he attempted the life of his brother, to obtain the throne, who was saved through the intercession of his mother Parysatis. He then obtained the governorship of Lydia, whence he marched against his brother. The battle ended with the death of Cyrus, B. C. 400.

CYPRUS, a large island of Asiatic Turkey, near the coast of Asia Minor, for some time occupied by the Arabs on the decline of the Roman empire. They were, however, driven from it during the crusades, and the title of king of Cyprus was for some time held by Richard I. of England. In 1480 it fell into the hands of the Venetians, from whom it was wrested in 1750, by the Turks, who have since held it.

D.

DAHLBERG (Eric), a Swedish general, was born in 1625. He studied fortification, and in 1648 was appointed an engineer. Gustavus Adolphus sent him to superintend the works for the defence of Thorn, and he attended that monarch in the war of Poland. By his advice the king undertook the enterprise of marching his army over the Great Belt, when frozen over, in 1657, whereby he extended his conquests to Copenhagen. In 1660 Dahlberg was ennobled, and in 1669 appointed commandant of Malmo and superintendant of the fortifications. In 1690 he was made governor of Livonia, and died at Stockholm in 1703.

DALMATIA, a country in the south of Europe, conquered by the Venetians in the fifteenth century. In 1797, the whole was made

over to Austria, but in 1805 it was united with the Illyrian provinces; and in 1814 the whole again came into the possession of Austria.

DAMASCUS, a city of Asia, conquered with all Syria, by Selim, the Turkish emperor, and has since remained part of the Ottoman empire. In 1700, the pacha, with a numerous army, was defeated by a small body of French cavalry. Napoleon, afterwards, deigned to march against the city, but was foiled by the siege of Acre. In 1811, the city was threatened by the Wahabees, but the pacha marching at the head of 6000 men, the invaders retired.

DAMIENS, the regicide, who stabbed Louis XV. at Versailles, on the 8th of January, 1757. The purport of his defence was, that he had not the smallest intention

HISTORY.

to cause the death of the king, but merely to bring him back to a sense of the duty he owed to God and the nation. He preserved to the last stage of his examination the greatest audacity, and the utmost *sang froid*. He declared that he had meditated his purpose during three years, without communicating it to any one. "If," he added, "I could have suspected that my hat was aware of it, I would have thrown it into the fire."

DAMIETTA, an Egyptian town on the mouth of the Mediterranean, and the most easterly branch of the Nile. It was the ancient *Thamiatia* and *Pelusium*, divided Egypt from Asia, and from the ruins of which it was built. It underwent the common fate of the other towns of this kingdom, by the Saracens. It was besieged by the crusaders in 1218, and taken the year after by the valour of those of Harlem, who, in a boat, cut the vast iron chains which closed the gate. It was restored to the sultan in 1221, the Christians being so surrounded by water, that they must have perished had they kept it. It was surrendered to Louis IX. in 1249, who, being taken, restored it for his ransom. It was afterwards burned, to prevent further occasion for war. It has been since rebuilt, and is still great and well-peopled, and one of the keys of the country.

DANBY, treasurer to Charles II. by whom he was severely upbraided for his pragmatic conduct in the affair of Titus Oates' plot, and for his temerity in laying the matter open to the house of peers.

DANDOLO, a Venetian commander during the government of Riniero, the forty-fifth doge, in 1262, completely defeated the Genoese under the famous Michael Doria. In a subsequent engagement he was taken prisoner by Lampadio Doria, and was so much affected by the disgrace, that he dashed out his brains against the side of the cabin wherein he was confined.

DANES made incursions into England, 827—838. They established themselves in the Isles of Thanet and Sheppey, whence they incessantly

harassed and ravaged the adjacent coasts. In 806 they overspread East Anglia, penetrated into Northumberland, and seized the city of York. In 872 they defeated Alfred in the battle of Wilton, but were, not many years after, defeated by him at Farnham, their standards taken, and some of them executed at Winchester. In 978 they resumed their ravages, and in 1002 suffered a dreadful massacre by the orders of Ethelred. In 1016 the Danes under Canute obtained the advantage in two battles with Edmond Ironside, and continued their ravages until their king's accession to the crown of England.

DANTZIC, an opulent city of West Prussia, founded in the twelfth century. In 1700, the plague carried off many thousands of its inhabitants; and in 1794 it was besieged and taken by the Russians and Saxons. It was occupied by the Prussians till May, 1807, when the French captured it after a long siege. It was occupied by a French garrison until Bonaparte's disastrous campaign in Russia, after which it was blockaded, and bravely defended by general Rapp. It was, however, compelled to surrender, and in 1814 it reverted to Prussia.

D'ARCON (John Claudius Eleonore Limiceaud), a French engineer, was born at Pontarlier in 1733. He served in the seven years' war, and particularly at the defence of Cassel. In 1780 he was employed in conducting the siege of Gibraltar, where he displayed extraordinary talents. On the French revolution he joined the popular side, and died in 1800.

DARDANELLES, expedition to the, was sent under the command of sir Thomas Duckworth, in 1807, to favour the views of Russia, and to counteract the ascendancy of the French at Constantinople; with orders to force the passage of the Dardanelles; and, if certain proposals were not accepted by the divan, to bombard the capital. The fleet, which had been stationed at Tenedos, proceeded to execute these orders on Feb. 18th.

DARIUS L., a noble satrap of

Persia, son of Hystaspes, who conspired with six other noblemen to destroy Smerdis, who usurped the crown of Persia after the death of Cambyses. On the murder of the usurper, the seven conspirators agreed, that he whose horse first neighed should be appointed king. In consequence of this singular resolution the groom of Darius previously led his master's horse to a mare at a place near which the seven noblemen were to pass. On the morrow before sun-rise, when they proceeded all together, the horse recollecting the mare, suddenly neighed; and at the same time a clap of thunder was heard, as if in approbation of the choice. The noblemen dismounted from their horses, and saluted Darius king. Darius was twenty-nine years old when he ascended the throne, and he soon distinguished himself by his activity and military accomplishments. He besieged Babylon, which he took after a siege of twenty months, by the artifices of Zopyrus. From thence he marched against the Scythians, and in his way conquered Thrace. This expedition was unsuccessful; and, after several losses and disasters in the wilds of Scythia, the king retired with shame, and soon after turned his arms against the Indians, whom he subdued. The burning of Sardis, which was a Grecian colony, incensed the Athenians, and a war was kindled between Greece and Persia. Darius was so exasperated against the Greeks, that a servant every evening, by his order, repeated these words: "Remember, O king, to punish the Athenians." Mardonius, the king's son-in-law, was entrusted with the care of the war, but his army was destroyed by the Thracians; and Darius, more animated by his loss, sent a more considerable force, under the command of Datis and Artaphernes. They were conquered at the celebrated battle of Marathon, by 10,000 Athenians; and the Persians lost in that expedition no less than 200,000 men. Darius was not disheartened by this se-

vere disaster, but resolved to carry on the war in person, and immediately ordered a still larger army to be levied. He died in the midst of his preparations, B. C. 485, after a reign of thirty-six years, in the sixty-fifth year of his age.

DARIUS II., king of Persia, of that name, was also called Ochus, or Nothus, because he was the illegitimate son of Artaxerxes. Soon after the murder of Xerxes he ascended the throne of Persia, and married Parysatis, his sister, a cruel and ambitious woman, by whom he had Artaxerxes Memnon, Amestris, and Cyrus the younger. He carried on many wars with success, under the conduct of his generals and of his son Cyrus. He died B. C. 404, after a reign of nineteen years, and was succeeded by his son Artaxerxes.

DARIUS III., the last king of Persia, surnamed Codomanus. He was son of Arsanes and Sysigambis, and descended from Darius Ochus. The eunuch Bagoas raised him to the throne, though not nearly allied to the royal family, in hope that he would be subservient to his will; but he prepared to poison him, when he saw him despise his advice, and aim at independence. Darius discovered his perfidy, and made him drink the poison which he had prepared against his life. The peace of Darius was early disturbed, and Alexander invaded Persia, to avenge the injuries which the Greeks had suffered from the predecessors of Darius. The king of Persia met his adversary in person, at the head of 600,000 men, despising Alexander for his youth. A battle was fought near the Granicus, in which the Persians were easily defeated. Another was soon after fought near Issus; and Alexander left 110,000 of the enemy dead on the field of battle, and took among the prisoners of war, the mother, wife, and children of Darius. The darkness of the night favoured the retreat of Darius, and he saved himself, by flying in disguise, on the horse of his armour-bearer,

HISTORY.

These losses weakened, but discouraged not Darius; he assembled another more powerful army, and the last decisive battle was fought at Arbela. The victory was long doubtful; but the intrepidity of Alexander, and the superior valor of the Macedonians, prevailed over the effeminate Persians; and Darius, sensible of his disgrace and ruin, fled towards Media. His misfortunes were completed. Besus, the governor of Bactriana, took away his life, in hope of succeeding him on the throne; and Darius was found by the Macedonians in his chariot, covered with wounds, and expiring, B. C. 331.

DARNLEY (Lord), married Mary Queen of Scots, whose favourite Rizzio he caused to be assassinated. In 1567 he was killed by an explosion of gunpowder, which completely demolished the house in which he slept, and carried his dead body into a neighbouring field.

DARWAR, a town and fortress of Hindostan, taken by Aurangzebe in 1685, on whose death it fell into the hands of the Mahrattas, from whom it was taken by Tippoo Sultan in 1784, but retaken in 1791 by the Mahrattas, and three battalions of British, after twenty-nine weeks' siege.

DATAMES, son of Camissares, governor of Caria, and general of the armies of Artaxerxes. The influence of his enemies at court obliged him to fly for safety, after he had greatly signalized himself by his military exploits. He took up arms in his own defence, and the king made war against him. He was treacherously killed by Mithridates, who had invited him under pretence of entering into the most inviolable connection and friendship with him, B. C. 362.

DAUN (Leopold count), an Austrian general, was born 1705. He displayed great talents in the service of Maria Theresa, during the war which she carried on for the defence of her hereditary dominions; and in the succeeding one with the king of Prussia he gained greater laurels, and defeated that monarch at Chotchemitch, in 1757.

The battle of Hochkirchen, in 1759, increased his glory, and after delivering Olmütz, he took the whole army of general Finck prisoners, at Pirna, in 1759. His fortune turned, however, at Torgau, in 1760, and the marshal, after being severely wounded, was obliged to abandon the field. He died at Vienna in 1766.

DAVISON (William), a statesman in the reign of queen Elizabeth, to whom he was secretary, but whose pretended ill-will he incurred by dispatching the warrant for the execution of Mary queen of Scots, without orders. For this he was heavily fined and imprisoned.

DECEMVIRI, ten magistrates of Rome who governed after the consuls were deposed. Their power was absolute; all other offices ceased after their election, and they presided over the city with regal authority. They were invested with the badges of the consul, to the full enjoyment of which they succeeded by turns, and only one was preceded by the fasces, and had the power of assembling the senate, and confirming decrees. The first elected decemvirs were Appius Claudius, T. Genucius, P. Sextus, Sp. Veturius, O. Julius, A. Manlius, Ser. Sulpitius, Pluricius, T. Romulus, Sp. Posthumius, A. U. C. 303. Under them, the laws which had been exposed to public view, that every citizen might speak his sentiments, were publicly approved of as constitutional, and ratified by the priests and augurs in the most solemn and religious manner. These laws were ten in number, and were engraved on tables of brass; two were afterwards added, and they were called the laws of the twelve tables, *leges duodecim tabularum*, and *leges decemvirales*. The decemviral power, which was beheld by all ranks of people with the greatest satisfaction, was continued; but in the third year after their creation, the decemvirs became odious, on account of their tyranny; and the attempt of Ap. Claudius to ravish Virginia, was followed by the total abolition of the office.

The people were so exasperated against them that they demanded them from the senate, to burn them alive. Consuls were again appointed, and tranquillity re-established in the state.

DELAWARE, one of the United States of America. Its first settlers were Swedes and Fins, in the year 1637. In 1639, a fort was built at Hoarkill, now called Lewistown; and, in the succeeding year, the Swedes erected another near the present site of Wilmington. The Dutch soon after laid claim to the country, which produced hostilities between them; and the Swedes, and ended in entirely quashing the power of the latter.

The Dutch had hardly established their power, when their title was questioned by the English of Maryland, and they were compelled to submit. The capture of New York, in 1673, by the Dutch, revived their authority, for a time, on the Delaware. The treaty of peace of 1684, however, put a final period to the Dutch government.

From 1682 to 1703, the representatives of Delaware and Pennsylvania met in one legislature, when a separation took place, and has remained permanent. Delaware remained under the government of the proprietary of Pennsylvania, though with a separate legislature, until 1775. In 1776, the Delaware became a free and independent state. The only recent event of importance, in its annals, is the formation of a new constitution, which took place in 1792.

DELHI, a celebrated city of Hindostan, on the banks of the Jumna, taken by the Mohammedans in 1193. It was sacked by Nadir Shah, in 1739, since which the inhabitants have been the victims of rapine, dishonour, and slaughter, among the contending parties.

DELUGE, the flood, or inundation of waters by which God destroyed mankind and animals in the time of Noah, and in which, as St. Peter says, only eight persons were saved. The following

is the calendar of this melancholy year, according to M. Basnage: the year of the world 1656:—

I. September. Methuselah died, aged, 969 years.—II. October. Noah and his family entered the ark.—III. November 17. The fountains of the great deep broken open.—IV. December 26. The rain began, and continued forty days and forty nights.—V. January. The earth buried under the waters.—VI. February. The rain continued.—VII. March. The waters at their height till the 27th, when they began to abate.—VIII. April 17. The ark rested upon mount Ararat in Armenia.—IX. May. They waited the retiring of the waters.—X. June 1. The tops of the mountains appeared.—XI. July 11. Noah let go a raven, which did not return.—18. He sent out a dove, which returned.—24. The dove being sent a second time, brought back an olive branch.—XII. August 2. The dove sent out a third time, returned no more.

The year of the world 1657.

I. September 1. The dry land appeared.—II. October 27. Noah went out of the ark.

DEMETRIUS, a son of Philip king of Macedonia, given up as an hostage to the Romans. His modesty delivered his father from a heavy accusation laid before the Roman senate. When he returned to Macedonia, he was falsely accused by his brother Perseus, who was jealous of his popularity, and his father too credulously consented to his death, B. C. 180.

DEMETRIUS, surnamed Soter, was son of Seleucus Philopater, the son of Antiochus the Great, king of Syria. His father gave him as a hostage to the Romans. After the death of Seleucus, Antiochus Epiphanes, the deceased monarch's brother, usurped the kingdom of Syria, and was succeeded by his son Antiochus Eupater. This usurpation displeased Demetrius, who was detained at Rome; he procured his liberty on pretence of going to hunt, and fled to Syria, where the troops received him as their lawful sovereign, B. C. 162. He put to death Eupater and Ly-

HISTORY.

slas, and established himself on his throne but by cruelty and oppression. Alexander Bala, the son of Antiochus Epiphanes, laid claim to the crown of Syria, and defeated Demetrius in a battle, in the twelfth year of his reign.

DEMETRIUS, a son of Antigonus and Stratonice; surnamed Poliorcetes, *destroyer of towns*. At the age of 22, he was sent by his father against Ptolemy, who had invaded Syria. He was defeated near Gaza, but soon repaired his loss by a victory over one of the generals of the enemy. He afterwards sailed with a fleet of 250 ships to Athens, and restored the Athenians to liberty, by freeing them from the power of Cassander and Ptolemy, and expelling the garrison, which was stationed there under Demetrius Phalereus. After this successful expedition, he besieged and took Manychia, and defeated Cassander at Thermopylæ. This uncommon success raised the jealousy of the successors of Alexander; and Seleucus, Cassander, and Lysimachus, united to destroy Antigonus and his son. Their hostile armies met at Ipsus, B. C. 301. Antigonus was killed in the battle; and Demetrius, after a severe loss, retired to Ephesus. His ill-success raised him many enemies; and the Athenians, who lately adored him as a god, refused to admit him into their city. He soon after ravaged the territories of Lysimachus, and reconciled himself to Seleucus, to whom he gave his daughter Stratonice in marriage. Athens now laboured under tyranny; and Demetrius relieved it, and pardoned the inhabitants. The loss of his possessions in Asia recalled him from Greece, and he established himself on the throne of Macedonia, by the murder of Alexander the son of Cassander. Here he was continually at war with the neighbouring states; and the superior power of his adversaries obliged him to leave Macedonia, after he had sat on the throne for seven years. He passed into Asia, and attacked some of the provinces of Lysimachus with various

success; but famine and pestilence destroyed the greatest part of his army, and he retired to the court of Seleucus for support and assistance. He met with a kind reception, but hostilities between them soon begun; and after he had gained some advantages over his son-in-law, Demetrius was totally forsaken by his troops in the field of battle, and became an easy prey to the enemy. Though he was kept in confinement by his son-in-law, yet he maintained himself like a prince, and passed his time in hunting and in every laborious exercise. His son Antigonus offered Seleucus all his possessions, and even his person, to procure his father's liberty; but all proved unavailing, and Demetrius died in the fifty-fourth year of his age, after a confinement of three years, B. C. 286.

DEMETRIUS, (Juanowitz), defeated Mamay the khan of Tartary, in many engagements, but was at length overpowered, and perished with his whole army, which is said to have amounted to upwards of 240,000 men.

DENMARK. The Danish history is obscure and uninteresting till the reign of Margaret Walde-mar, 1387, who in her own person united the crowns of Sweden, Denmark, and Norway. This union, however, did not continue longer than the beginning of the sixteenth century; when Christian II. was obliged to renounce all claim to Denmark and Norway. Christian VII. was unequal to the labours of government; but his son, Christian VIII., is a prince of considerable abilities and virtue; but it has, however, been the ill-fate of this prince, in the collision of interests during the late wars, to have his fleet captured by England, and to lose the island of Heligoland, and his kingdom of Norway. The situation of Denmark, when the affairs of Bonaparte began to assume an unfavourable appearance, was critical and perplexing. The troops of Sweden, which formed a part of the allied army, directed their operations against Danish

Holstein; and Denmark, finding resistance unavailing, separated her interests from France, and negotiated a treaty of peace with Sweden and Great Britain, in 1814. By this treaty Norway was surrendered to Sweden, in return for which Denmark was to receive Swedish Pomerania and the isle of Rugen. Great Britain agreed to restore to Denmark all the conquests made from that country, with the exception of Heligoland. It was not without great reluctance that the king of Denmark parted with one of his crowns, and a country so long annexed to the Danish dominions; nor could the Norwegians be reconciled to a transfer for which their consent had never been asked, and which militated against all their national and political prejudices. After some resistance by the Norwegians, a convention was signed between the crown-prince of Sweden and the Norwegian government; and, at a general diet of the nation, a great majority voted for the union of Norway with Sweden, on condition of the preservation of a free constitution, which had been framed by a former diet. Thus the people of Norway, by an assertion of national independence, obtained a free government, which they did not before possess, and maintained their ancient character for manly spirit.

DENMARK, dynasty of:—

Frederick I. began	A. D. 1523
Christian III.	1554
Frederick II.	1559
Christian IV.	1558
Frederick III.	1648
Christian V.	1670
Frederick IV.	1690
Christian VI.	1730
Frederick V.	1746
Christian VII.	1766
Frederick VI.	

DESSAIX, a celebrated French general, who commanded under Bonaparte, in Upper Egypt, a division of troops destined to pursue and keep in awe the Mamelukes, whom he attacked and put to flight near the pyramids of Saccara, in Upper Egypt. At the battle of Ma-

rengo, to the success of which, on the side of Napoleon, he was greatly instrumental, he was killed, on the 14th of June, 1806.

DESPARD, (Colonel Marcus,) having fomented a conspiracy against the government, it was discovered in the month of November, 1802. He and several others were tried, and found guilty on the following February, and the sentence of the law was executed on him and six other persons.

DETTINGEN, battle of, in 1743, between the Austro-Anglian army, commanded by George II. and an army of 60,000 French, under marshal Noailles, upon the east side of the river Mayne. The British, to the number of 40,000, pushed forward to the other side, where they found themselves entirely destitute of provisions, and cut off from all means of being supplied. At this moment George II. arrived, and resolved to penetrate forward to join 12,000 Hanoverians and Hessians, at Hanau. He, accordingly, decamped; but he soon found himself inclosed on every side, near the village of Dettingen. The impetuosity of the French troops, however, saved his army. They passed a defile, which they should have been contented to guard; and, under the duke de Grammont, their horse charged the English foot with great fury. They were received with the utmost intrepidity and resolution; so that they were obliged to give way, and repass the main, with the loss of about 5,000 men.

DEVEREUX, (Robert,) was born in 1567. He had his education in Trinity-college, Cambridge; and, on being introduced at court, became a great favourite with queen Elizabeth. In 1585 he went to the Low Countries, and distinguished himself at the battle of Zutphen. On his return he was made master of the horse, and commanded the cavalry in the camp at Tilbury, as well as created earl of Essex. After this he went on two expeditions against Cadiz, the last of which failed, owing to a difference between him and Raleigh. On his return home, Essex was made earl-marshal of England,

HISTORY.

and master-general of the ordnance. But he had now attained the height of royal favour, and his fall was hastened by repeated acts of indiscretion. At the council-board he contradicted the queen, who gave him a box on the ear, and told him to go and be hanged; when, instead of making an apology, he rose in extreme wrath, put his hand to his sword, and swore that he would not have taken such an affront from the great Harry, and quitted the presence. An apparent reconciliation took place, but it was a short calm. The earl was sent soon after to Ireland, where he made peace with the rebel, Tyrone, contrary to instructions; and next, to complete his ruin, he left the government without leave. After his arrival in London he created considerable alarm by arming his followers, and putting his house in a state of defence; for which he was summoned to appear at the council-board; but he refused to attend; on which a conflict ensued, and being soon compelled to surrender, he was sent to the tower. His trial and condemnation quickly followed, and he was beheaded, February 25, 1600-1.

DIDO, called also *Elissa*, a daughter of Belus, king of Tyre, who married Sichæus, or Siharbas, her uncle, who was priest of Hercules. Pygmalion, who succeeded to the throne of Tyre after Belus, murdered Sichæus, to get possession of the immense riches which he possessed; and Dido, disconsolate for the loss of a husband whom she tenderly loved, and by whom she was equally esteemed, set sail in quest of a settlement, with a number of Tyrians, to whom the cruelty of the tyrant became odious. During her voyage, Dido visited the coast of Cyprus, where she carried away fifty women, and gave them as wives to her Tyrian followers. A storm drove her fleet on the African coast, and she bought of the inhabitants as much land as could be covered by a bull's hide, cut into thongs. Upon this piece of land she built Carthage, and a citadel, called Byrsa; and the increase of population, and the rising commerce among

her subjects, soon obliged her to enlarge her city, and the boundaries of her dominions. Her beauty, as well as the fame of her enterprise, gained her many admirers; and her subjects wished to compel her to marry Iarbas, king of Mauritania, who threatened them with a dreadful war. Dido begged three months to give her decisive answer; and during that time, she erected a funeral pile, as if wishing, by a solemn sacrifice, to appease the manes of Sichæus, to whom she had promised eternal fidelity. When all was prepared, she stabbed herself on the pile in presence of her people, and by this uncommon action obtained the name of Dido, *valiant woman*, instead of Elissa. Her celebrated amours with *Æneas*, mixed up with much fable and poetical fiction, form the subject of one of the *Æneids* of Virgil. (See *Carthage*.)

DIEMEN, (Anthony Van,) governor of the Dutch East-India settlements, was born at Kuilenberg. He went to India early in life as a soldier, but rose by his merit to be accountant-general, and a member of the supreme council. In 1631 he returned to Holland as commander of the India fleet, but the year following went out again, and not long after became governor-general. In 1642 he sent Tasman on a voyage to the south, the consequence of which was the discovery of that part of New Holland, called Van Diemen's land. He died in 1645.

DIGBY, (John,) earl of Bristol, was born at Colleshill, in Warwickshire, in 1586. He was a student of Magdalen-college, Oxford, after which he travelled and on his return became gentleman of the privy-chamber to James I., who conferred on him the honour of knighthood, and sent him ambassador to Spain. In 1618 he was created baron Digby of Sherbourn. In 1621 he went ambassador to the emperor, and in 1622 again to Spain, concerning the marriage then projected between prince Charles and the Infanta. On his return home he was charged with improper conduct by the duke of Buckingham, and sent to the tower,

but was soon released. After the accession of Charles I, the contention ran high between Buckingham and Digby, and they preferred accusations of high-treason against each other. Notwithstanding the harsh treatment which he had experienced, the earl zealously defended the royal cause in the rebellion, for which he lost his estate, and died in exile at Paris, in 1653.

DIGBY, (sir Everard,) was born at Drystoke, in Rutlandshire, in 1581. His father, Everard Digby, esq., was a protestant, but the son became a convert to popery. This, however, did not prevent him from receiving the honour of knighthood at the accession of James I. He was, notwithstanding this, drawn into the gunpowder-plot, towards which he contributed 1600*l.* and being taken in arms when the treason was detected, he was executed, January 30, 1606.

DIGBY, (sir Kenelm,) eldest son of the above, was born at Gothurst, in Buckinghamshire, in 1603. He was educated in the protestant religion; and, in 1618, was sent to Gloucester-hall, now Worcester-college, Oxford. At the beginning of the reign of Charles I. he was appointed one of the gentlemen of the bed-chamber, a commissioner of the navy, and a governor of the Trinity-house. Some disputes having arisen with the Venetians, sir Kenelm was sent with a squadron into the Mediterranean, where he attacked the fleet of the republic at Scanderoon. In 1636 he became reconciled to the church of Rome. On the breaking out of the civil war he was committed prisoner to Winchester-house; but, in 1643, he recovered his liberty, and went to France. He died on his birth-day, June 11, 1665.

DIOCLETIAN, a celebrated Roman emperor, born of an obscure family in Dalmatia. He was first a common soldier, and by merit and success, he gradually rose to the office of a general, and, at the death of Numerian, he was invested with the imperial purple. In this high station, he rewarded the virtue and fidelity of Maximian, who had shared with him

all the subordinate offices in the army, by making him his colleague on the throne. He created two subordinate emperors, Constantius and Galerius, whom he called Cæsars, whilst he claimed for himself and his colleague the superior title of Augustus. His cruelty against the followers of Christianity has been deservedly branded with the appellation of unbounded tyranny, and insolent wantonness. After he had reigned twenty-one years in the greatest prosperity, he publicly abdicated the crown at Nicomedia, on the 1st of May, A. D. 304, and retired to a private station at Salona. Maximian, his colleague, followed his example, but not from voluntary choice; and when he, some time after, endeavoured to rouse the ambition of Diocletian, and persuade him to re-assume the imperial purple, he received for answer, that Diocletian took now more delight in cultivating his little garden, than he formerly enjoyed in a palace, when his power was extended over all the earth. He lived nine years after his abdication in the greatest security and enjoyment at Salona, and died in the sixty-eighth year of his age.

DION, a Syracusan, son of Hipparinus, famous for his power and abilities. He was related to Dionysius, and often advised him, together with the philosopher Plato. His great popularity rendered him odious in the eyes of the tyrant, who banished him to Greece. There he collected a numerous force, and encouraged by the influence of his name, and the hatred of his enemy, he resolved to free his country from tyranny. He entered the port of Syracuse with only two ships, and in three days reduced under his power an empire which had already subsisted for fifty years, and which was guarded by 500 ships-of-war, and 100,000 foot, and 10,000 horse. The tyrant fled to Corinth, and Dion kept the power in his own hands, fearful of the ambition of some of the friends of Dionysius. He was, however, betrayed and murdered by one of his familiar friends, called Callistocrates, or Callipus, 364 years before

the Christian era, in the 55th year of his age, and four years after his return from Peloponnesus.

DIONYSIUS, 1st. or the elder, was the son of Hermocrates. He signalized himself in the wars which the Syracusans carried on against the Carthaginians, and taking advantage of the power lodged in his hands, he made himself absolute at Syracuse. He vowed eternal enmity against Carthage, and experienced various success in his wars against that republic. His tyranny and cruelty at home rendered him odious in the eyes of his subjects, and he became so suspicious that he never admitted his wife or children to his private apartment, without a previous examination of their garments. He made a subterraneous cave in a rock, said to be still extant, in the form of a human ear, which measured eighty feet in height, and 250 in length. It was called the ear of Dionysius. The sounds of this subterraneous cave were all necessarily directed to one common tympanum, which had a communication with an adjoining room, where Dionysius spent the greatest part of his time, to hear whatever was said by those whom his suspicion and cruelty had confined in the apartments above. The artists that had been employed in making this cave were all put to death by order of the tyrant, for fear of their revealing to what purposes a work of such uncommon construction was to be appropriated. He died in the 63d year of his age, B. C. 368, after a reign of thirty-eight years. Authors, however, are divided about the manner of his death, and some are of opinion that he died a violent death. Some suppose that the tyrant invented the catapulta, an engine which proved of infinite service for the discharging of showers of darts and stones in the time of a siege.

DIONYSIUS, surnamed the younger, was son of Dionysius I., by Doris. He succeeded his father as tyrant of Sicily, and by the advice of Dion his brother-in-law, invited the philosopher Plato to his court, under whom he studied for a while. The philosopher

advised him to lay aside the supreme power, and in his admonitions he was warmly seconded by Dion. Dionysius refused to consent, and, soon after, Plato was seized and publicly sold as a slave. Dion, likewise, on account of his great popularity, was severely abused and insulted in his family, and his wife given in marriage to another. Such behaviour was highly resented; Dion, who was banished, collected some forces in Greece, and in three days rendered himself master of Syracuse, and expelled the tyrant B. C. 357. Dionysius retired to Locri, where he behaved with the greatest oppression, and was ejected by the citizens. He recovered Syracuse ten years after his expulsion; but his triumph was short, and the Corinthians, under the conduct of Timoleon, obliged him to abandon the city. He fled to Corinth, where, to support himself, he kept a school, as Cicero observes, that he might still continue to be a tyrant. It is said that he died from an excess of joy, when he heard that a tragedy of his own composition had been rewarded with a prize.

DIOSPOLITES, the name of the kings of Egypt, who reigned at Diospolis, the chief town of their kingdom, in the Lower Egypt. There were seven dynasties of the Diospolites. Carudes, son of Menes, had for his share all Lower Egypt, and had many successors under him; the nineteenth, named Amesises, a new dynasty, was formed at Diospolis, which had seventeen kings, though it lasted but seventeen years. Thus they count the seven dynasties, or families, that reigned at Diospolis. The second begun in Sesonchoris, and had seven kings. The third had sixty, in 184 years. The fourth lasted 250 years, but it is not known how many kings there were. The fifth is said to have begun about Moses's time, and had seventeen kings, who conquered the territories of Memphis. Sethosis, said to be the famous Sesostris of the Grecians, was the first of the sixth. The seventh and last dynasty held 178 years, under twelve kings, of

whom Nechepsos was the first, and Vennephes the last.

DIU, a celebrated island and fortress of Hindostan, plundered by the sultan Mahmoud, in 1025. In 1535 the Portuguese gained possession of Diu, when its splendour even rivalled Tyre; but, being sacked by the Arabs of Muscat in 1671, it dwindled into insignificance.

DOLABELLA, (P. Corn.) a Roman, who married the daughter of Cicero. During the civil wars he warmly espoused the interest of J. Caesar, whom he accompanied at the famous battles of Pharsalia, Africa, and Munda. He was made consul by his patron, though M. Antony, his colleague, opposed it. After the death of J. Caesar, he received the government of Syria, as his province. Cassius opposed his views, and Dolabella, for violence, and for the assassination of Trebonius, one of Caesar's murderers, was declared an enemy to the republic of Rome. He was besieged by Cassius in Laodicea, and when he saw that all was lost, he killed himself, in the twenty-seventh year of his age.

DOLGORUCKI, a Russian general, remarkable for his cruelties. He vanquished Stenko, the Cossack chief, and executed so severe a judgment upon the rebels at Arsamus, that in one place were seen heaps of dead bodies, headless, and smeared with blood; in others, numbers of wretches impaled alive, uttering frightful shrieks, and suffering a thousand deaths at once; and, on all sides, gibbets, on each of which were hung forty or fifty men. Within the space of three months, more than 11,000 persons were judicially condemned and executed.

DOMINGO, ST., or HISPANIO-LA, and in the language of the natives, **HAYTI**, one of the largest of the West India islands, was discovered by Columbus in 1492. The Spaniards retained it till the middle of the sixteenth century, when it was taken by a colony of French and English, who were routed by the Spaniards, but, at length, settled in the island. In 1789, when the French revolution commenced, a civil war broke out

in the island, and the French and English settlers were finally overwhelmed by the blacks. In August, 1791, they rose against their masters, and rendered the French part of the island a scene of massacre and destruction. In 1793 the island was taken by a British force, but the climate prevented the achievement of any signal success: they were ultimately obliged to evacuate, and the independence of St. Domingo was proclaimed, July 1, 1801. In December of the same year, a French expedition endeavoured to reduce the revolted blacks to submission; but, a cruel war following, and terminating in favour of the blacks, the French evacuated the island in 1803. A regular government was now framed of the blacks, at the head of which was Dessalines, a military chief, who was put to death for his cruelties. His power was much disputed by several chiefs, the most successful of whom were Petion and Christophe, who carried on a series of bloody wars; but, on hostilities being suspended, they applied themselves to the domestic improvement of their dominions. In 1811, Christophe was crowned king of Hayti; but, in 1820 he shot himself, and the opposite party immediately proclaimed the government republican, and elected a president.

DOMINICANS, an order of monks, sometimes called Jacobins, sometimes Predicadores or Preaching-friars, and in England Black-friars. The first monastery of this order was established at Toulouse, whence Dominic, the founder, sent missionaries to procure converts in every quarter. In 1218 he founded a convent in Paris, and, within four years after, there were upwards of forty convents of Dominicans in Italy, France, Germany, and Spain. St. Dominic died in 1221; and the same year twelve of his followers came over to England, and founded convents at London and Oxford. In 1276 the city of London gave them two streets, where they had a magnificent monastery. There have been of the order of Dominicans, four popes, sixty-three cardinals, 159

HISTORY.

archbishops, and 800 bishops, besides the lords of the inquisition.

DOMITIAN, son of Vespasian and Flavia Domatilla, made himself emperor of Rome at the death of his brother Titus, whom, according to some accounts, he destroyed by poison. The beginning of his reign promised tranquillity to the people, but their expectations were soon frustrated. Domitian became cruel, and gave way to incestuous and unnatural indulgences. He commanded himself to be called God and Lord in all the papers which were presented to him; and he passed the greatest part of the day in catching flies and killing them with a bookin. In the latter part of his reign Domitian became suspicious, and his anxieties were increased by the predictions of astrologers, but still more poignantly by the stings of remorse. He perished by the hand of an assassin, the 18th of September, A. D. 96, in the forty-fifth year of his age, and the fifteenth of his reign. He was the last of the twelve Cæsars.

DONALD I. the twenty-seventh king of Scotland, was the first of the Scottish kings who embraced Christianity, which was received there by authority, about 187. During his reign, the emperor Severus brought a great force to subdue the island, when the Scots and Picts withdrew, and not being able to fight the Romans, harassed them by ambushes, and frequent skirmishes, leaving cattle for them, and falling upon them while intent on the prey, by which means, they cut off 50,000 of their men. But Severus, though sick, and carried in a litter during the whole expedition, marched to the farthest parts of the island, cut down woods, made bridges, and filled marshes; so that he obliged the Scots and Picts to abandon a great part of the country, and accept conditions of peace, and penned them up by a wall eighty miles beyond Adrian's, between the mouth of the Forth and the Clyde. Donald having settled peace again by this agreement, died in the twenty-first of his reign. —DONALD II. the thirty-second king of Scotland, was defeated in

the first year of his reign, and died of the wounds which he received in battle against Donald of the Isles, who succeeded him under the name of—DONALD III. who behaving himself in a tyrannical manner, was cut off in the twelfth year of his reign by Crathlinthus, of the blond-royal, who succeeded him, about 260.—DONALD V. the seventieth king of Scotland, was a licentious and dissolute prince. In his reign the Picts joined the English, and invaded the Scots; they came to a battle on the river Jedd, where Donald obtained the victory; and marching down the river Tweed, recovered Berwick, which the English had taken, and seized their ships in the mouth of the river. The English next assembled their forces, and assaulted the Scots by night, and making a great slaughter, took the king prisoner; and following their victory, divided their army into two bodies, and took all the country south of Stirling from the Picts, and divided the Pictish lands between themselves and the Britons, and banished and cut off the remainder of the Picts. Donald V. died in 358.—DONALD VI. the seventy-fourth king of Scotland, was a warlike prince, and assisted king Alfred against the Danes. He died in 903, at Forres.—DONALD VII. the eighty-fourth king of Scotland. His first troubles were occasioned by Macdonald of the Isles, who having wounded Bancho, thane of Lochabar, and killed another of the king's ministers, administering justice, he broke out in rebellion, and overthrew Malcolm, with the king's army. Macbeth and Bancho were sent against him, and defeated him. After this, the Danes, under Sueno, king of Norway, landed in Scotland, and defeated the Scots near Culross, who retreating to Perth, Sueno pursued them, and received a fatal overthrow by stratagem—the Scots deluding him with proposals of peace; and, mixing the drink which they gave his army with nightshade, cut most of them off. This victory was scarcely obtained, when they

were alarmed by a new Danish navy, which landed men in Fife, and plundered the country. Bancho being sent against them, defeated them, and killed their leaders at the first encounter. Peace being obtained, Macbeth cut off Donald in an ambush, and usurped the throne about 1091.

DORIA, (Andrew), a Genoese commander, was born in 1468. After being employed by several princes, he received an appointment in Corsica, which island he completely reduced. In 1513, being made captain-general of the galleys, he spread terror among the states of Barbary, and considerably enriched himself. On the breaking out of the revolutions in Genoa he went into the service of France, and next into that of the pope; but on the capture of Rome he returned to Francis I., who made him general of his galleys, and admiral of the Levant. Through him the French became masters of Genoa, after which Doria entered into the service of the emperor, and, in 1528, succeeded in recovering the republic from its foreign yoke. For this exploit the emperor offered him the sovereignty, which he refused, being contented with the title of "Father and deliverer of his country." He next carried the glory of his arms through the Mediterranean, and was rewarded by Charles V. with the order of the golden fleece, to which were added a principality and marquisate in the kingdom of Naples. He died in 1560.

DOUAY, siege of, June 15, 1710, when the town was taken by the duke of Marlborough and prince Eugene, after a siege of nearly two months.

DRACO, a celebrated lawgiver of Athens. When he exercised the office of archon, he made a code of laws, B. C. 623, for the use of the citizens, which, on account of their severity, were said to be written in letters of blood. By them, idleness was punished with as much severity as murder; and death was denounced against the one as well as the other. Such a code of rigorous laws gave occasion to a certain Athenian to ask

of the legislator, why he was so severe in his punishments; and Draco gave for answer, that, as the smallest transgression had appeared to him deserving death, he could not find any punishment more rigorous for more atrocious crimes. These laws were at first enforced, but they were often neglected, on account of their extreme severity, and Solon totally abolished them, except that one which punished a murderer by death. The popularity of Draco was uncommon, but the gratitude of his admirers proved fatal to him. When once he appeared on the theatre, he was received with repeated applauses, and the people, according to the custom of the Athenians, shewed their respect to their lawgiver, by throwing garments upon him. This was done in such profusion, that Draco was soon hid under them, and smothered by the too great veneration of his citizens.

DRAKE (sir Francis), was born near Tavistock, in Devonshire, in 1545. After serving under his relation, sir John Hawkins, he obtained the command of two ships, with which he sailed to the West Indies in 1570. He made another expedition in 1572, and gained considerable advantages over the Spaniards. He next served under the earl of Essex, in Ireland, where he distinguished himself so much by his bravery, that sir Christopher Hatton introduced him to queen Elizabeth. In 1577, he made another voyage to the Spanish settlements in America, and sailed as far as forty-eight degrees north latitude, calling the country which he discovered New Albion. He then went to the East Indies, and, having doubled the Cape of Good Hope, returned to Plymouth, in 1580, which voyage round the world took up two years and ten months. On his arrival at Deptford, queen Elizabeth went on board his ship, where she dined, and afterwards conferred on Drake the honour of knighthood. In 1585, he sailed again for the West Indies, where he took several places from the Spaniards, and returned laden

HISTORY.

with wealth. In 1587, he made an attack upon Cadiz, and destroyed a quantity of shipping. The year following, he commanded as vice-admiral, under lord Howard, and was instrumental in the destruction of the Spanish armada. After this he went to the West Indies with sir John Hawkins, but the two commanders disagreeing in their plans, little was done, in consequence of which Drake became melancholy, and died of the flux, off Nombre de Dios, January 28, 1596.

DRAPER, (sir William,) an English general, was born at Bristol, and educated at Eton, from whence he removed to King's college, Cambridge: but, preferring a military life, he went to the East Indies, where, in 1760, he rose to the rank of colonel. In 1761 he was at the taking of Belleisle; but in 1763 went again to the East, and, in conjunction with admiral Cornish, reduced Manilla, where they consented to accept a ransom for the fort of four millions of dollars, which the Spanish government never paid. In 1769 the colonel, who was then knight of the bath, appeared in print, as the antagonist of Junius, in defence of the marquis of Granby. In 1779, being a general, he was appointed lieutenant-governor of Minorca; on the surrender of which place he preferred charges against governor Murray, for which he was directed by the court to make an apology to that officer. Sir William died at Bath in 1787.

DRESDEN, battle of, between Napoleon Bonaparte with 130,000 men, and the allies, on the 26th of August, 1813. The battle was chiefly fought by the cavalry and artillery, and continued until evening, when the allies retired toward the Bohemian frontier. On their retreat, the allies captured Vandamme, and six other generals, 10,000 men, six standards, and sixty pieces of cannon. On the 6th November, 1813, marshal St. Cyr was blockaded in Dresden; and after an ineffectual negotiation with Schwartzburg,

he surrendered his whole force, amounting to 30,000 men.

DREUX, an old town of France, burnt by Henry II. of England in 1186, and taken by Henry V. in 1421. Its neighbourhood is famous for a battle fought December 18, 1502, between the Catholic army of Charles IX. and the Protestants under the prince of Conde, in which the latter were defeated, and their leader taken prisoner.

DROGHEDA, a seaport town of Ireland, taken by storm by Oliver Cromwell, in 1649, who killed the governor and many of the inhabitants.

DRUIDS, the ministers of religion among the ancient Gauls and Britons. They were divided into different classes, called the Bard, Eubages, the Vates, the Samnothi, the Sarronides, and the Samothai. They were held in the greatest veneration by the people. Their life was austere and recluse from the world, their dress was peculiar to themselves, and they generally appeared with a tunic which reached a little below the knee. As the chief power was lodged in their hands, they punished as they pleased, and could declare war and make peace at their option. Their power was extended not only over private families, but they could depose magistrates and even kings, if their actions in any manner deviated from the laws of the state. They had the privilege of naming the magistrates which annually presided over their cities, and the kings were created only with their approbation. They were entrusted with the education of youth, and all religious ceremonies, festivals, and sacrifices were under their peculiar care. They taught the doctrine of the metempsychosis, and believed the immortality of the soul. In their sacrifices they often immolated human victims to their gods, a barbarous custom, which continued long among them, and which the Roman emperors attempted to abolish to little purpose.

DRUSES, a warlike race of peo-

ple of Syria, whose origin is traced to a dispersion about the commencement of the 12th century among the followers of Mohammed. In 1563, they were reduced to subjection by Amurath III.; and about the middle of the 17th century, they attained the height of their power, under the celebrated emir Takrel-diu, or Takardiu, who, engaging in hostilities with the Turks, was taken prisoner and strangled, at Constantinople, in 1631. His posterity held the country as vassals of the Turks; and the succession failing, the authority devolved on another family. The Druses inhabit the Castravan mountains, Lebanon, Anti-Lebanon, and all the coast from Gibail to Haide, and east as far as Balbec.

DUDLEY, (Edmund,) a statesman, was born in 1462. He became so eminent as a lawyer that Henry VII. gave him several employments. He and Empson, however, were charged with committing many acts of oppression, for which, at the commencement of the next reign, they were sent to the Tower, tried and beheaded in 1510.

DUDLEY, (John,) was born in 1502. He was restored in blood in 1511, and afterwards became the favourite of Henry VIII. who created him viscount Lisle, and made him one of the executors of his will. On the death of that monarch, he was created earl of Warwick, and in 1551 duke of Northumberland. Finding that Edward VI. was in a dying state, the duke contrived a marriage between his son, lord Guildford Dudley, and Jane Grey, the daughter of the duke of Suffolk, after which he persuaded the king to settle the crown upon that unfortunate lady, to the exclusion of his sisters. On the death of Edward, lady Jane was proclaimed queen, but his sister Mary's adherents were too powerful, and the duke of Northumberland fell upon the scaffold, August 21; 1553.

DUDLEY, (Robert,) the second son of the duke of Northumberland, was born in 1532. He also was condemned with his father, but received a pardon, and was restored in blood by queen Mary.

In the next reign he was made master of the horse, knight of the garter, and a member of the privy council. In 1560 his lady died, not without suspicion of violence, it being generally believed that Dudley aspired to the hand of his sovereign. Elizabeth, however, proposed him to Mary queen of Scots for a husband; but that unfortunate princess treated the overture indignantly. In 1564, he was created baron Denbigh and earl of Leicester; soon after which, he was elected chancellor of Oxford. About 1572, he privately married lady Douglas Sheffield, by whom he had two children, but as he never would acknowledge the mother for his wife, the offspring were considered illegitimate. In 1575, the earl entertained the queen at his castle of Kenilworth in Warwickshire, but offended her very much the year following by marrying the countess dowager of Essex. In 1585, he was appointed governor of the Protestant low countries, but returned the same year by the queen's command. He went thither again in 1587, but owing to the public complaints, he was recalled from thence within a few months. The next year he was appointed to command the forces assembled at Tilbury, on the prospect of a Spanish invasion; but he died Sept. 4, the same year.

DULCITIUS, a Roman, and a tribune and notary of the emperor; he proceeded against the Donatists of Africa.

DULOPOLIS, a city of Libia, into which, if a slave brought a stone, he became free.

DUMBARTON, a town of Scotland, made a royal burgh by Alexander II. in 1221. In the time of Bede, the fort was considered impregnable; but it was reduced by famine in 756; and in April, 1571, while held by the adherents of queen Mary, was surprised and taken by escalade, during a thick fog.

DUMFERMLINE, a town in Scotland, the birth-place of Charles I. in 1600, and near which one of the most sanguinary engagements, du-

HISTORY.

ring the civil wars, was fought, between the royal forces and Oliver Cromwell, when the former were defeated, with the loss of 2000 killed, and 1200 prisoners.

DUMFRIES, a royal burgh of Scotland, burnt by the English in 1448, and again ravaged in 1570. In 1706, the inhabitants burnt the articles of the union, but they supported the reigning family during the rebellion of 1715; and, in 1745, the Pretender entered the town, with his army, and laid the inhabitants under contribution.

DUMOURIER, a French general, gained the battle of Jemappe, between the French and Austrians, on the 6th November, 1792. He soon after appeared before Brussels, the gates of which town were immediately opened to him. On the 15th of March, 1793, in a general engagement with the Austrians, at Neerwinden, which lasted from seven in the morning until five in the evening, he was totally defeated, with the loss of 4000 men, and several pieces of cannon. Shortly after this event, Dumourier incurred the displeasure of the convention, and four commissioners were empowered to arrest him; these he caused to be delivered up to the Austrians; and himself fled to the allies for protection.

DUNBAR, battle of, fought between the Scottish army, under Leslie, in behalf of Charles II., and the English, under Cromwell. The Scotch, having descended from an advantageous station, near Dunbar, Cromwell foretold, without revelation, that "the Lord had delivered them into his hands." He gave orders for an immediate attack, and such was the effect, that though the Scotch were double in number, they were routed with great slaughter. About 3000 were slain, and 9000 taken prisoners. This battle took place on the 3d of September, 1650.

DUNCAN, (the eighty-eighth king of Scotland), was natural son of Malcolm III. and sent for by the nobles, from England, against Donald VII. who had usurped the

crown. But Duncan soon incurred the hatred of his subjects; his rival, Donald, taking advantage of this, had him slain, by the earl of Mern, in Monteith, after he had reigned a year and an half, and re-usurped the throne. In his time Magnus, of Norway, seized on the Western Isles; which Donald not resenting, the people were so incensed against him, that they sent for Edgar, Malcolm's son, from England; who, being assisted with some forces by William Rufus, was joined also by a great number of people in Scotland, so that Donald fled, his men having forsaken him; and, being taken, was committed to prison, where he died, after he had reigned about three years, about the year 1040.

DUNCAN, (Adam, viscount,) a brave commander, was the son of Alexander Duncan, of Lundie, in the county of Angus, esq. and born in 1731. He entered early into the naval service, and, in 1755, obtained a commission as lieutenant; in 1759, was made master and commander; and, in 1761, appointed post-captain, when he had a share in the reduction of the Havannah. In 1779 he commanded the Monarch, and distinguished himself in Rodney's victory over the Spanish fleet. From that ship he removed to the *Blenheim*, and served under Lord Howe in the relief of Gibraltar.

In 1789, he was made rear-admiral of the blue; the next year promoted to the same rank in the white squadron; in 1793 appointed vice-admiral of the blue, and of the white in 1794. The year following, he was made commander of the North Sea fleet, and hoisted his flag on-board the *Prince George*, but shifted it to the *Venerable*, as better suited to the service. After watching the Dutch fleet, in the Texel, for two years, a mutiny in his squadron compelled him to return to Yarmouth-roads, of which the enemy took advantage, and put to sea. The English admiral, being apprised of this, hastened to the coast of Holland, and, on the 11th of October, 1797, gained a complete victory off Camperdown, taking the

Dutch admiral, De Winter, and eight ships. For this achievement he was made a viscount, and obtained a grant of 2000*l.* a-year for himself, and the two next heirs to the peerage. He died August 4, 1804.

DUNDAS, (Henry,) viscount Melville, son of lord Arniston, was born in 1740, and educated at the university of Edinburgh. In 1763, he was admitted a member of the faculty of advocates; in 1773, appointed solicitor-general; in 1776, lord-advocate; and, in 1777, joint-keeper of the signet for Scotland. In 1782, he was sworn of the privy-council, and made treasurer of the navy; but when the coalition administration came into power, he lost his places. This, however, was but for a short time; and, when that party fell, he resumed his station at the navy-board, on which he relinquished that of lord-advocate. The board-of-control, for East India affairs, being established, Mr. Dundas was appointed first president; and, in 1791, he became secretary-of-state for the home-department, which he exchanged for that of the war-office, in 1794. He continued in active employment till 1801, when he resigned his places, and was created viscount Melville. On the return of Mr. Pitt to power, he was made first lord of the admiralty, and continued so till he was impeached, in 1806, of high crimes and misdemeanors in his former situation as treasurer of the navy. Of all the charges brought against him, however, he was acquitted. He died in Scotland, May 27, 1811.

DUNDEE, a sea-port town of Scotland, twice taken by the English in the reign of Edward, and as often recovered by Wallace and Bruce. It was taken and burnt by Richard II., and again in the reign of Edward VI. It was also stormed by the marquis of Montrose, and was taken by Monk, pillaged, and the inhabitants massacred in the time of Cromwell.

DUNKIRK, a sea-port in French Flanders, taken from the Spaniards by marshal Turenne, 4th of June, and transferred to the English on the 17th, 1658. In 1662, it was sold by Charles II. to the French, for 400,000*l.* In 1686, an engagement, which lasted four days, took place between the English and Dutch fleets off Dunkirk. At the peace of Utrecht, William III. exacted from the French an engagement to block up the harbour, which was but partially complied with. Since the peace of 1763, Dunkirk has, however, been the unmolested resort of armed ships of war, and smuggling vessels at all times. In 1793, the duke of York was defeated at Hondskoote, near Duukirk, by Houchard, with a loss of 4,000 men, and obliged to raise the siege; but it is generally thought the town might have been carried, had it been pressed immediately on the duke's approach.

DURAZZO, a sea-port of European Turkey, where Pompey was besieged by Cæsar; and in 1081, a battle was fought between the Normans under Robert Guiscard, and the Greeks under Alexis Comnenus, in which the latter were defeated.

EARTHQUAKES, one in Asia that overturned twelve cities, 17; *Herculanum* buried by one, 79; four cities in Asia, two in Greece, and three in Galatia, overturned, 107; Antioch destroyed, 115; one that swallowed up *Nicomedia* and several cities, 120; one in Macedonia, swallowed up 150 cities, 357; at *Nicomedia*, in *Bythynia*, 358; at *Jerusalem* and *Constantinople*, 363; in Italy, 369; *Nice* destroyed, 370; a general one, 377; one, from September to November, swallowed up several cities in Europe, 394; five in different parts of Europe, 400; one swallowed up several villages of the *Cimbri*, 417; one in *Palestine*, 419; one at *Constantinople*, 434; at *Constantinople*, *Alexandria*, and *Antioch*, 446; one that destroyed *Antioch*, Sept. 14, 458; one at *Constantinople* that lasted forty days, 480; one at *Antioch*, that destroyed that and other cities, 526; another at *Antioch*, that swallowed up 4,800 inhabitants, 528; *Pompeiiopolis*, in *Mysia*, swallowed up, 541; one almost universal, 544; one at *Constantinople*, 552; one at *Rome* and *Constantinople*, 557; city of *Beritus* destroyed, the Isle of *Goos* shaken, and *Tripoli* and *Bilbus* damaged, 560; at *Daphne* and *Antioch*, 581; 600 cities destroyed, 742; in *Palestine* and *Syria*, where thousands lost their lives, 746; at *Mecca*, where 1500 houses and ninety towers were thrown down, 867; *Constantinople* overthrown, and *Greece* shaken, 986; one at *Batavia*, 1021; one which overwhelmed *Liege* and *Rottenburgh*, in *Sweden*, 1112; one in December, at *Antiochia*, which destroyed several cities and towns, and overturned the castle of *Triaeth*, and the cities of *Mariseum* and *Mamistria*, 1114; in *Lombardy* for forty days, 1117; one in December, 1118; one in September, 1120; in August, in many parts of the kingdom, 1113; one that swallowed up *Catania* and 15,000 souls, 1137; *Antioch*, *Tripoli*, and *Damascus* destroyed, 1150; in *Hungary* and *England*, 1179; one that threw down the church of *Lincoln*, and

others, 1185; at *Calabria*, in *Sicily*, a city, with its inhabitants, lost in the *Adriatic* sea, 1186; *Verona* greatly damaged, 1187; in *Somersetshire*, 1190; at *Briaa*, in *Lombardy*, where 3000 lives were lost, 1222; one in *England*, Feb. 14, 1248; one in *Somersetshire*, 1249; one at *St. Albans*, 1250; general one that threw down *St. Michael's* on the Hill, without *Glastonbury*, 1247; the greatest ever known in *England*, Nov. 14, 1318; a dreadful one in *Germany*, 1346; several churches thrown down, May 21, 1382; a very dreadful one, accompanied with thunder and lightning, Sept. 28, 1426; one in *Naples*, when 40,000 persons perished, 1456; in Italy, 1510; in the Isle of *Cuba*, 1530; in *China*, 1556; in *Herefordshire*, which overthrew *Kingston-chapel*, &c. Feb. 17, 1571; in *London* and *Westminster*, when part of *St. Paul's* and the *Temple* churches fell; in *Dorsetshire*, where it removed a considerable piece of ground, Jan. 13, 1583; in *Bohemia*, *Moravia*, and *Hungary*, 1590; in *Japan*, where several cities were swallowed up, 1596; in *Kent*, where the hills became valleys full of water, 1596; at *Peru*, at *Quito*, and *Arequipa*, 1600; at *Banda*, in the *East Indies*, 1631; at *Manilla*, 1637; in *Calabria*, in Italy, March 27, 1638; at *Mechlin*, in *Germany*, 1640; in *Norway*, May 24, 1637; in *France*, June, 1680; at *Ragusa*, in *Illyrium*, near 6000 inhabitants were lost, and several towns in *Dalmatia* and *Albania*, April 6, 1687; in *China*, 1688; at *Naples*, where a third part of that city, and much shipping, were destroyed, June 6 and 7, 1688; *Smyrna* destroyed, July 10, 1698; *Lime*, in *Dorsetshire*, nearly destroyed, 1689; *Fort-Royal*, in *Jamaica*, destroyed, and 3000 people lost, Sept. 1692; *Messina*, in *Sicily*, overturned in a moment, 18,000 persons perished, and in the island, 60,000, Jan. 1693; a dreadful one in the Isle of *Teneriffe*, Dec. 24, 1704; one at *China*, June 19, 1718; *Palermo*, in *Sicily*, nearly swallowed up, Sept. 1756; at *Boston*, in *New England*, Oct. 29, 1737; the whole

kingdom of Chili injured, with St. Jago, July 30, 1730; one at Naples, 1731; another in the city of Avellino, which it destroyed, and Orizaba in great part, Nov. 29, 1732; in Calabria, where the territory of Nova Cassa sunk twenty-nine feet without destroying a building, April 18, 1733; in Ireland, which destroyed five churches and above 100 houses, Aug. 1734; in Hungary, which turned round a mountain, Oct. 23, 1736; at Smyrna, April, 1738; at Palermo, which swallowed up a convent, Feb. 4, 1739—40; at Leghorn, Jan. 5 and 6, 1742; in Somersetshire, June 15, 1745; a terrible one at Lima, which destroyed that city, and 5000 persons lost their lives; seventy-four churches, fourteen monasteries, and fifteen hospitals thrown down, from Oct. 27, to Nov. 20, 1746; it extended itself to Callao, which was destroyed, with about 5000 of its inhabitants; in London, Feb. 8, and March 8, 1750; at Liverpool, Chester, and Manchester, April 2, 1750; at Fiume, in the gulf of Venice, Feb. 5, 1751; the greatest part of the city of Adrianople destroyed, August 22, 1752; Grand Cairo had two-thirds of the houses, and 40,000 inhabitants swallowed up, Sept. 2, 1754; the city of Quito, in Peru, destroyed, April 24, 1753; the island of Mitylene, when 2000 houses were overthrown, May, 1756, which did considerable damage at Oporto, in Portugal, and Seville, in Spain, but more particularly at Lisbon, where, in about eight minutes, most of the houses, and 50,000 inhabitants, were destroyed, and whole streets swallowed up; the cities of Coimbra and Bruga suffered, and St. Ubes swallowed up; at Faro, 3,000 inhabitants were buried, great part of Malaga was destroyed; one-half of Fez, in Morocco, and 15,000 Arabs were swallowed up, and above half of the island of Madeira destroyed; it extended 5,000 miles; at the Azores isles, where 10,000 were buried in the ruins, and the island divided, July 9, 1757; at Bourdeaux, in France, Aug. 11, 1758; at Tripoli, in Syria, which extended near 10,000 miles, when Damascus lost 6000 inhabitants,

and several other cities, with the remains of Balbec, were destroyed, between Oct. and Dec. 1759; Truxillo, in Peru, was swallowed up in November, 1750; in Syria, Oct. 30, 1760; in the Molucca islands, 1763; one at Constantinople, that buried 800 persons, May 22, 1766; at Martinico, August, 1767, where 1000 lost their lives; and at St. Pierre, 1767; at Comora and Buda, June 28, 1768; one in the Brazils, 1772; in the Archipelago, 700 houses and 100 inhabitants were lost, in Dec. 1770; one at Fez, in Morocco, May 6, 1763; in Kerry, in Ireland, June, 1773; Guatemala, in New Spain, entirely swallowed up, and many thousand inhabitants perished, Dec. 15, 1773; at Radicofani, near Florence, in Italy, great damage was done, Oct. 5, 1777; at Smyrna, June 25, 1778, which destroyed great part of that city; at Tauris, in Persia, where 15,000 houses were thrown down, and great part of the inhabitants perished, March 3, 1780; at Calabria, and in the isle of Sicily, 1783; again, 1784, which totally destroyed Messina, &c.; at Archindschan, when it destroyed the town and 12,000 inhabitants, July 18, 1784; Arequipa destroyed, 1785; in the north of England, Aug. 11, 1786; at Iceland, and some parts of Germany, Nov. 1784; at Barbadoes, Oct. 1784; in Calabria, in Italy, April 10, 1785; in Mexico, and other parts of New Spain, April 18, 1787; Bergodi-San-Sapoloro, in Tuscany, had its cathedral, bishop's palace, &c. destroyed, Sep. 30, 1789, with the adjacent town of Castello, &c. and Borgo had 180 houses destroyed, and 30 houses, &c. swallowed up by an opening of the earth, in Oct. 1791; in Sicily and Calabria, Oct. 1791, particularly at Mileto and Monte Leone; in Turkey, where three towns, containing 10,000 inhabitants, were lost, July 3, 1794; near Naples, where the city of Torre del Greco was nearly destroyed, June 13, 1794; in different parts of the north of England, Nov. 18, 1795; at Sumatra, in the East Indies, and above 300 persons perished, Feb. 20, 1797; the whole of the country between Santa Fé and Panama

HISTORY.

destroyed, including the cities of Cuzco and Quita, with 40,000 inhabitants, in Feb. 1797; at Constantinople, Oct. 26, 1800, which destroyed the royal palace and other buildings; it extended into Rumania and Wallachia, to Bucherest and Adrianople; June 12, 1802, nearly destroyed Crema in Upper Italy; Minguin was entirely swallowed up in a lake; Brescia had three churches and twelve houses destroyed; the church of La Tour, and most of the houses in Lucerne, partly destroyed, April, 1808.

EAST INDIES, first discovered by the Phenecians, but Alexander the Great made extensive conquests there, in 327 B. C.; by the Portuguese, 1497; conquered in 1500, and settled by them in 1506. The first settlement was Goa. The first commercial intercourse of the English with the East Indies, was a private adventure of three ships, fitted out 33 Elizabeth, 1591; only one of them reached India; and, after a voyage of three years, the commander, Capt. Lancaster, was brought home in another ship, the sailors having seized on his own. The information from him gave rise to a capital mercantile voyage, and the first East India Company's charter, on Dec. 31, 1600, their stock consisting of 72,000*l*. They fitted out four ships, and meeting with success, they have continued ever since. A new company established, 1608; the old one re-established, 1700; agreed to give government 400,000*l*. a-year, for five years, so they might continue unmolested, Feb. 1769; house built, 1726; India bill passed, 1773; sent judges from England thither, 1774.—Dutch East India company established, 1594.—East India company at Copenhagen established, 1612; another at Embden, 1750; in Sweden, 1781; charter of the English East India company renewed, 1813.

EDGAR, king of England, son of Edmund, and brother of Edwin his immediate predecessor, came to the throne at sixteen years of age, in 959. The tranquillity of his reign, obtained him the name of peaceable. To secure the country from foreign invasion, he sent out a fleet, consisting of 4500 ships,

which he divided into four squadrons, one to sail from east to west, another from west to east; the third and fourth between north and south. He filled the office of a judge itinerant, going the circuit himself, and riding through all his provinces, to see Justice well administered, and that the poor were not oppressed. (See *Elfrida*.)

EDGE-HILL, battle of, between the royalists, under Charles I. and the parliamentary army, under the Earl of Essex, was fought with various success, on the 23d of October, 1642. The cavalry and the right wing of the parliament army were defeated, but the day was relieved by Sir William Balfour, who, commanding the reserve, fell upon the royalists while dispersed at plundering, and thus balanced the loss which had been sustained. The earl of Lindsay was mortally wounded and taken prisoner, and sir Edmund Verney, the king's standard bearer, was killed. Both armies recovered their ranks, but neither of them had the courage to renew the conflict.

EDINBURGH, the metropolis of Scotland, was a town of some note in 854. In 1215, a parliament was assembled at Edinburgh for the first time; in 1437, the kings of Scotland resided in it, and held regular parliaments there; and in 1456, it was considered the metropolis of Scotland. The castle, before the use of artillery, was deemed to be impregnable by force. It was probably built by the Saxon king Edwin, whose territories reached to the Firth of Forth, and who gave his name to Edinburgh, as it did not fall into the hands of the Scots till the reign of Indulphus, who lived in the year 953. The town was built for the benefit of protection from the castle, and it was formerly surrounded by water, except towards the east; so that when the French landed in Scotland, during the regency of Mary of Guise, they gave it the name of Lislebourg.

Leith, though near two miles distant, may be properly called the harbour of Edinburgh. It con-

tains nothing remarkable, but the remains of two citadels (if they are not the same) fortified: they were bravely defended by the French against the English, under Mary of Guise, and afterwards repaired by Cromwell.

EDMUND, the last king of the East-Angles, but lineally descended from the ancient stock of those kings, reigned in the ninth century. At fourteen years of age, he was crowned at Bury. His country being invaded by the Danes, he encountered them at Thetford, his whole army was routed, himself taken, bound to a stake, and shot to death by arrows. Thus the whole country was subdued, and remained in the possession of the Danes, till vanquished by king Edward the elder, by whom it was united to the rest of England.

EDMUND, surnamed Ironside, for his great strength, was Ethelred's third son, and succeeded him in 1016. The archbishops, abbots, and many of the nobles, being met together, chose Canute for their king, swore allegiance to him, and renounced the race of Ethelred. Thus the nation stood divided between Edmund and Canute. Edmund, on going to the West Saxons, was received by them as their king, and afterwards by many other provinces. Canute came with his whole fleet up the river to London, and making a great dyke on the Surrey side, turned the stream, and drew his ships on the west side of the bridge. He then made a broad and deep trench about the city, and attacked it on every side; but failing of success, he hastened to the west; where Edmund, with his small force, encountered him at Pen, in Dorsetshire, and put him to flight. Another battle was obstinately fought on both sides; when Canute, sensible of his loss, marched off, with a design to make a second attempt upon London, where he had left his fleet. The king, marching up to London, raised the siege, chased Canute to his ships, who immediately sailed to Mercia; and having wasted the sea-coast thereof, their horse came

back by land, and the foot by sea, into Kent. Edmund was prevailed on to divide the kingdom with Canute.

EDWARD I. king of England, subdued Wales in 1284; and the laws of England were established throughout the principality. In 1291, in the contest between David Bruce and John Baliol, for the throne of Scotland, Edward determined in favour of Baliol. The invasion with which Edward was threatened, in 1295, from France and Scotland, whose kings had entered into an alliance, obliged him to carry on preparations of war with great vigour. To this circumstance, and to this epoch, may be attributed the original rise of the popular institution of Parliaments. In 1297, he marched into Scotland, and, after some victories, sent the famous coronation chair and stone, and the national records, to England. His death happened on the 7th of July, 1307, in the sixty-ninth year of his age, and the thirty-fifth of his reign.

EDWARD III. succeeded to the throne of England in 1327, when he was only in his fourteenth year. On the 15th of July, 1338, he set sail from England, to invade France. In 1340, he defeated the French in a naval engagement near Sluise; a truce of four years followed. In 1344, he renewed the war with France, and two years afterwards gained the famous battle of Cressy, in which the French king lost upwards of 30,000 men. In 1347, Calais surrendered to him after a siege of eleven months. Nine years after this event, the memorable battle of Poitiers was gained by his son Edward, in which he performed prodigies of valour, and John II. king of France was taken prisoner. The death of Edward III. happened on the 21st of June, 1377, about a year after that of his illustrious son the prince of Wales, surnamed the Black Prince.

EDWARD IV. was proclaimed king of England in 1461, having wrested the sceptre from the hands of Henry VI. In the same year, on the 29th of March, was fought

HISTORY.

the decisive battle of Towton, in which the forces of Edward, termed the Yorkists, were victorious over the Lancastrians. In 1470, Edward was compelled to fly to the continent, and was declared to be an usurper and traitor by the parliament. He soon afterwards, however, returned, landed at Ravenspur, and, by a secret road, passed on without molestation, until he presented himself before the gates of London; he was readily admitted, and his rival Henry again fell into the hands of his enemies. On the 14th of April, 1471, he defeated the earl of Warwick at Barnet; and, on the 4th of May, gained a decisive victory over the forces of queen Margaret at Tewksbury; he was consequently firmly established on the throne. He died on the 9th of April, 1483, after a reign of twenty-three years, and in the forty-second year of his age.

EDWARD VI. king of England, was the son of Henry VIII. by lady Jane Seymour, and born in 1538. He imbibed a zeal for the reformation from his maternal uncle, the great duke of Somerset, and he furthered its cause with firmness during his reign, which, however, was unfortunately too short for the hopes of the nation. He died of a consumption at Greenwich, July 6, 1553, not without suspicion of his end being accelerated.

EGBERT, the last king of the Saxon heptarchy, and the first monarch of England, was the eighteenth king of the West Saxons. —He obtained the other six kingdoms, and united all into one. In 800 he was proclaimed king of the Saxons. Egbert, having established his kingdom, subjected the Britons of Cornwall with those beyond the Severn; and having conquered all the south, marched to Northumberland with an army, to complete his conquest. This done, the next year he subdued North Wales; but in the midst of his prosperity he was disturbed by the Danes; his army was disbanded, and the Danes were encouraged in their invasion. In

832 they landed at Sheppy, in Kent, which having wasted, they quitted the kingdom. They landed the following year in Dorsetshire; here the Saxons lost their two chief leaders, and the Danes remained masters of the field. The Danes returning two years after, and joining their forces with the Cornishmen, were routed and put to flight. Soon after this success Egbert died, and was buried at Winchester. Being the first sole monarch of England, since the heptarchy, he was first crowned at Winchester, in 819, by the title of king of England. By this name he called the south parts of Britain, from his ancestors, the Angles, who joined with the Saxons in the conquest of the island.

EGYPT. This country is now divided into Upper and Lower Egypt. Upper Egypt consists of a long valley, which begins at Sienna, and ends at Grand Cairo. This valley is still as fertile as in the ancient and more prosperous days of Thebes; but it is less cultivated, and its once renowned cities are levelled with the ground; while oppression, ignorance, and superstition, usurping the throne of laws and of arts, keep them so. Lower Egypt comprehends the whole of that territory which is situated between Cairo, the Mediterranean-sea, the isthmus of Suez, and Lybia. But the earth is no longer watered and cultivated with that care and attention which distinguished the ancients. Where formerly were seen rich lands and flourishing towns, only a few mean and wretched hamlets, surrounded by date-trees and deserts, are now to be found; and the seven branches by which the Nile formerly spread through the Delta, and emptied itself into the sea, are now reduced to two.

Egypt is one of the oldest kingdoms in the world. Here the children of Israel were held in slavery from the death of Joseph, in 1635 B. C., to 1491 B. C. In 1445, Lower Egypt was conquered by the Canaanites, who fled from Joshua, when he dispossessed them of their own country. Upper

THE NEW YORK
PUBLIC LIBRARY

TOR, LENOX AND
TILDEN FOUNDATIONS

E G Y—E G Y

Egypt was divided at this time into a great number of kingdoms, which were united under Mithradathosis about 1157; and the Canaanites, or shepherd kings, as they are called, were driven out of Egypt by Amosis in 1070. About 1000, Sesac, or Sesostris, king of Egypt, made rapid and extensive conquests, carrying his arms as far as Spain, but he did not keep possession of any of the conquered countries. In 974, in the like manner, he took and plundered Palestine, Syria, and Persia. In 947, the Ethiopians conquered Egypt; in 944 they retired to Memphis, being driven thither by Cæsarius, who was made king of Lower Egypt; but in 930 the Ethiopians again conquered the whole. In 788, Egypt was divided into several small kingdoms, and in 751, Sabacon, the Ethiopian, conquered it. In 671 it was subdued by Asserhaddon, king of Assyria; but in 608, it revolted from the Assyrians. In 655 Psammeticus became king of all Egypt, by the reduction of eleven other princes, who had reigned along with him.

Nebuchadnezzar, king of Babylon, conquered this country in 566; but, toward the end of his reign, the Egyptians recovered their liberty. They seem to have been subject to Cyrus about 534, but, probably rebelling, were reduced by Cambyzes, in 525. Though Egypt several times revolted, it was always recovered by the Persians, and was part of that empire when Alexander the Great put an end to it in 331, B. C. In 30, B. C. it was reduced to a Roman province, and continued a part of the Roman empire till it was conquered by the Saracens in 640.

In 808 Al Toulon, the son of Ahmed, a Turkish slave, being entrusted by the caliph of Bagdat with the government of Egypt and Syria, set up for himself, and maintained his authority, notwithstanding all attempts to depose him; but, in 904, Mohammed, general of the caliph Al Moctasi, recovered Egypt to the caliphate. The last caliph of Egypt assassinated his predecessor, and there-

by rendered himself odious. However, in the year 933, Mohammed, the son of Tagi, surnamed Al Ashked, seized upon Syria and Egypt, in the caliphate of Al Radi, and his family retained the whole of it, except a small part which Obeidallah, Al Mohdi, the first of the Fatemite dynasty (the seat of whose empire was at Cairwan, near Tunis), had conquered in 910.

His successor, Abu Temin Mahud, surnamed Moez Ledinillah, conquered the rest of Egypt about 970, by his general Jaawar, who built the city Al-Kahirah, commonly called Grand Cairo, whither his master soon removed his court. The Fatemite dynasty expired in 1176, when, upon the death of the last prince of this family, the kingdom was usurped by the famous Saladin, who had been his vizir, and who began the dynasty of the Ajobites. In 1243, the Mamelukes, who were Tartar soldiers employed by the princes of this family, seized the kingdom, and held it till they were conquered by Selim I., emperor of the Turks, in 1517. In 1798, the French having resolved to attack the British possessions in India, it was determined to seize upon the territory of Egypt, that by moving the commerce of the East through the Red Sea, the new French colony should become the grand mart, where all Europe might be supplied with Indian articles cheaper than they could be rendered by the English; while, as a military post, it could, at all times, transport auxiliaries to the coast of Comorandel.

It was the expedition to Egypt that the directory and general Bonaparte were preparing, whilst they masked their designs under the appearance of organizing an army to co-operate with the united Irishmen for the invasion of England; altho' the object was concealed with so much address, that it was doubtful, after it was known that Malta had been captured by the expedition, whether the general might not even from thence bend his course to Ireland.

On the 26th of May, 1798, Bona-

HISTORY.

parte put to sea, on board the *l'Orient* of 120 guns, bearing the flag of admiral Bruyes, who was to take the command of the fleet then assembling from the different ports of France, which was to consist of thirteen sail of the line, besides four frigates, and near 400 transports. On board this fleet was an army of 40,000 men, and a vast number of adventurers, who associated their fate with the expedition.

On the 1st of July, he wrote to the commander of the Caraval at Alexandria, stating that the beys had loaded the French merchants with exactions, and that he was come to demand reparation; that he should be at Alexandria the next day; and that, if they committed the slightest act of hostility against the French army, he should treat them as an enemy.

The same evening the general-in-chief made arrangements for landing at Marabou. They were at a distance of about three leagues from the shore; the wind was northerly, and blew with violence, and the debarkation perilous and difficult; the sea was covered with boats, which stemmed the impetuosity of the waves and currents. Early in the morning, the general-in-chief landed at the head of the foremost troops, who formed, with the greatest promptitude, in the desert, about three leagues from Alexandria. After some slight skirmishes, he advanced and invested Alexandria, where he established himself on the evening of the same day, by a capitulation of the city and fortress. Having continued three days in Alexandria, they left general Kleber in command, and the army commenced their march across the desert. Rosetta made no resistance to their entry; and, leaving a garrison there, under general Menou, and another at Rhamanich, Bonaparte continued his march along the banks of the Nile towards Cairo. On the arrival of the army at Gizeh, he found that Mourat Bey had assembled all his forces to oppose the further progress of the French.

—The Mamelukes, amounting to 10,000, fought with desperate courage; part of them were however either exterminated by the sword, or drowned in the river, and the rest with Mourat Bey retreated into Upper Egypt. This action, which was denominated the *Battle of the Pyramids*, convinced the French they had no ordinary enemy to combat with and overcome. Bonaparte was waited upon by the magistrates of Cairo, which he entered in triumph. The French troops were now parted into three divisions, one of which, under general Dessaix, was sent to pursue the Mamelukes that had escaped into Upper Egypt; the second was left at Cairo; and the third followed Ibrahim Bey, who had fled, and so precipitately, that he could not be overtaken. Returned to Cairo, Bonaparte employed himself in arranging the details of the administration of Lower Egypt, sending garrisons, establishing lazarettoes, &c.

The conquest of Egypt now appeared complete; but, on the 1st of August, the English admiral, Nelson, who had received the command of a considerable number of ships, appeared off the mouth of the Nile, and soon attacked the French fleet, which was at anchor in the bay of Aboukir, and with such skill and bravery, that he took nine sail of the line, completely destroyed the whole naval force of the French in the Mediterranean, and insulated the army of Egypt from their country. Soon after this an insurrection broke out at Cairo, in the first commotions of which general Dupuis and several soldiers were massacred. This being quelled, Bonaparte resolved on his expedition to Syria, which completely failed, owing to the intrepidity of sir Sydney Smith. July 25, 1799, the French defeated the Turks off Aboukir, when 2000 were dislodged and surrounded, and perished by the fire of the enemy, or were drowned. After suffering various repulses, the Turkish forces sallied from their intrenchments, and the French attacked the re-

E G Y—E G Y

doubt, and carried it. The Turks fled on all sides; Aboukir, after a bombardment of eight days, surrendered, and 2,000 men were made prisoners.

The interior of Egypt was now tranquil. After various conferences with sir Sydney Smith, it was agreed that the French army should be transported to France, and accordingly the treaty was signed, Jan. 1800; but a dispute arising between Kleber and the grand vizier, respecting the citadel of Cairo, the forces were again drawn out, and a furious battle ensued. The Turks, amounting to 30,000, were routed; 6,000 were killed or wounded, whilst the loss of the French was trifling.

In 1801, the English, after much delay, at length resolved to dispossess the French of Egypt; an expedition was fitted out, the army under sir Ralph Abercrombie, and the fleet under Lord Keith. Part of the fleet sailed for Minorca on the 2d of November, and the remainder for Malta, where it arrived on the 20th, and was joined by lord Keith; and, on the 20th and 21st, the first and second divisions sailed from Malta. The French force now possessing Egypt, amounted to 30,000 men, besides natives, amounting to 15,000 more; and the English army amounted to 15,000 men, 12,000 only of whom were effective.

On the 23d of February, 1801, the fleet weighed anchor, and on the 1st of March the whole fleet moored in Aboukir bay. On the 8th they resolved to land, and about 5,500 men assembled in the boats, the remainder being put into ships close to the shore, that a support might be given after the first landing was effected. The French, on seeing the boats advance, poured from the heights of Aboukir-castle all the shot and grape-shot their musketry could carry. The British were, however, undismayed, and the boats having arrived, they landed coolly in the face of the enemy. The artillery from the British fleet now operated on the batteries of Aboukir, without exposing their soldiers to danger.

The battle was obstinate and bloody, but the British, at length, prevailed. The French lost considerable numbers of killed and wounded; and at Acre the death-blow was nearly given to their newly-acquired mastery of Egypt.

On the 9th of March, the army advanced westward, leaving two regiments to blockade Aboukir, which refused to surrender. On the 12th, some partial skirmishes took place. The French army was posted on a ridge of heights near Alexandria; the British resolved to attack it in this position, and on the 13th commenced the assault. The enemy made a vigorous resistance, and prevented the British attacking them in flank; but forming in two lines, they charged them, and compelled them to retire to the heights of Alexandria, but the tremendous fire of the French artillery reduced them to the necessity of forcing their strong position. Meanwhile the detachment employed in the siege of Aboukir compelled the fortress to surrender on the 17th.

General Menou, who commanded the French, had now arrived from Cairo, and their whole force was concentrated at Alexandria. At half-past three in the morning of the 21st, some musketry was heard, and the action soon became general. The twenty-eighth regiment bore the first brunt of the battle with great intrepidity, and the fifty-eighth and twenty-third marched to its assistance. Colonel Alexander Stewart marched the forty-second to their assistance, and engaged with a corps styled by the French—"Invincibles," whom they vanquished; but while pursuing their victory, a body of cavalry coming up, charged them in the rear, while a fresh column marched up to them in front. In this exigency the highlanders fought front, flank, and rear at the same time. At length, after much desperate fighting, the French were repulsed soon after day-break. A fresh column attempted to turn the right flank of the guards; but the steady fire of those troops soon compelled the

HISTORY.

enemy to fly, and the repulse was general. During the charge of cavalry, sir R. Abercrombie was mortally wounded: after having dispatched his *aides-du-camp*, he was alone, and some French dragoons attacked him, threw him from his horse, and attempted to cut him down; the gallant general however sprang up, and wrested the sword from his antagonist, who was bayonnetted by a soldier of the forty-second. Though wounded, he kept the field, and gave orders, but he was at length conveyed on-board lord Keith's ship, where he died, on the 28th. General Hutchinson succeeded to the command, and resolved to reduce Lower Egypt. By the 19th of April, forts Julien and Rosetta were captured; and the British being joined by a considerable number of Turks, they proceeded to Rhamanish, where the French made a stand, but were vanquished, and retreated towards Cairo; the British took possession of the town.

On the 11th of May, the army continued its march; and, on the 15th, intelligence being received that Belhard was in full march from Cairo, Hutchinson resolved to anticipate the attack; and, on the 16th, the Turks commenced the onset; the French took post in a wood of date-trees, but were compelled to retreat. The British were now joined by great numbers of Arabs. The camp was placed at Gizeh, and dispositions were made for invading Cairo; but the French garrison offered to capitulate. A convention was accordingly concluded on the 26th of June, with certain stipulations, which Menou not acceding to for the surrender of Alexandria, Hutchinson invested that city on the 15th, and with the co-operation of lord Keith and general Coote, completely surrounded the city, when Menou once more offered to capitulate, and received the same terms as those of the surrender of Cairo. Thus the French were compelled to evacuate. Since that time a great revolution has been effected by the massacre of

the greater part of the Mamelukes, and the expulsion of the rest from Egypt, by Mohammed Ali, who now administers in the name of the Porte. (See *Cairo, Menou, Mourat Bey, and Nelson.*)

ELBA, a small island on the coast of Italy, celebrated as the residence of Bonaparte from May, 1814, to February, 1815, when he sailed on his expedition to France. Porto Ferrajo, its capital, is remarkable for the gallant defence made of it by the English against the French, in 1801.

ELCHIPÓOR, a town of Hindostan, besieged by the Mahrattas, in 1772, who retired on payment of tribute. It was then governed by a deputy of the nizam, who, in 1777, endeavoured to establish his independence, but was overwhelmed by the troops of the nizam, and killed in the battle.

ELFRIDA, a lady renowned for her beauty, was first married to Athelwold, the favourite of Edgar, who, influenced by the reports of the personal charms of Elfrida, deputed Athelwold to bring an account of her, in order that, if he found her charms answerable to the reports, he might marry her. The fidelity of Athelwold was vanquished by the beauty of Elfrida, and he himself married her. When Edgar had discovered the artifices and infidelity of his favourite, he stabbed him in hunting, and then married Elfrida, who had stimulated him to the deed.

ELLIOTT, (George Augustus, lord Heathfield,) was born about 1717. He was educated at Leyden, after which he entered into the Prussian service. He returned to Scotland in 1735, and became a volunteer in the 23d regiment of foot; but, in 1736, he went into the corps of engineers. His next removal was to the second troop of horse-grenadiers as adjutant; in which situation he distinguished himself at Dettingen, where he was wounded. In this regiment he rose to the rank of lieutenant-colonel; and, in 1759, he was appointed to raise the 1st regiment of light-horse, which was called by his name. On his return from

Germany he was sent to the Havannah, and, at the peace, the king conferred on his regiment the title of "royals." In 1775 he was appointed commander-in-chief in Ireland, from whence he soon returned, and was made governor of Gibraltar, which fortress he bravely defended against the combined forces of France and Spain. He died at Aix-la-Chapelle, July 6, 1790.

ELIZABETH, queen of England, was the daughter of Henry VIII. by Anne Boleyn, and born in 1533. She was educated in the protestant religion, and, by the last will of her father, was nominated third in the succession. During the reign of Mary she was treated with great severity, committed to the Tower, and next sent to Woodstock, where she was kept in close confinement. Attempts were also made to draw her into a snare on the subject of religion, so as to prosecute her for heresy; but by uncommon prudence she escaped these designs. In 1558 she succeeded to the throne. She gloried in the title of a virgin queen, and refused several matrimonial overtures; yet was supposed to be pleased with these applications. By the vigilance of her government she preserved her dominions in peace, repelled the attempts of the Spaniards, and was considered as the patroness of the reformed churches. She was skilled in the Greek, and spoke the Latin with fluency. She died after a long and glorious reign, March 24, 1603.

ELPHINSTONE, admiral, captured the Cape of Good Hope, and a Dutch fleet, in 1795. In 1796 he took another Dutch fleet of seven ships of the line, which had sailed in hope of re-taking the cape. He was afterwards created lord Keith.

In 1800 he blockaded Genoa. In the month of August, the same year, he appeared off Cadiz, with a fleet of twenty ships of the line. In this city an epidemic disease was raging; and to the governor of Cadiz, who solicited his forbearance from attacking the city while so afflicted, he replied, that as the

ships in the harbour were to be employed in increasing the naval force of France, they could avert an attack only by surrendering them. To this requisition the governor refused to agree, and declared his resolution of defending the place to the last extremity. About the middle of 1801, his vigilance and ability rendered the approach of admiral Gantheaume to the coast of Egypt, with a reinforcement for general Menou, impracticable. On the 15th of August, general Hutchinson invested the city of Alexandria, on the eastern and western front; while lord Keith co-operated from the north with his fleet, and on the south with some gun-boats; Alexandria was thus completely surrounded. On the 21st, the British fleet forced its way into the great harbour.

EMANUEL I. (Comnenus,) the son of John Comnenus, emperor of Constantinople, succeeded to the empire before his elder brother, Isaac, who was noted for his cruelty and violence. He married Gertrude, the sister of Conradus, the emperor of Germany. Conradus, to deliver him from the neighbourhood of the infidels, joined with Ludovicus the younger, and undertook an expedition to the east. The ungrateful and perfidious Greek attempted to destroy his friends, by mixing meal with lime and plaister; he afterwards delivered them into the hands of the Turks, in 1147. He made an unfortunate war against the Turks and Hungarians, and died in 1180, after a reign of thirty-seven years.

EMANUEL II. succeeded his father in 1384. Soon after, Constantinople being beleagued by the Turks, the marshal of France hastened to his relief, while he himself went about to all the courts of Europe, begging aid. He staid two years at Paris; till hearing of the overthrow of Bajazet by Tamerlane, he returned to Constantinople, where, after meeting with no better success, about the year 1419, he resigned the empire to his son, John Paleologus. He assumed the name of Matthew,

HISTORY.

and died in a monastery, in the year 1425.

EMMETT, Robert, a young man of promising talents and brilliant imagination, the director and principal mover of a band of political enthusiasts, the instigators of an insurrection which broke out in Ireland, on the 23d of July, 1803. They had designed to establish an independent Irish republic; and for this purpose marched through the principal streets of Dublin, unresisted, on their way to the castle. The armed mob soon lost all sense of subordination to their leaders, committed the most cruel outrages, and headstrong acts of atrocity. Several of the more active leaders of this insurrection, with Emmett, were tried for high-treason in Dublin, by special commission, and underwent the sentence of the law.

ENNESKILLING, or **INSKILLING**, a town in Ireland, famous for its gallant defence against the combined Irish and French, in the reign of king William. The inhabitants defeated the duke of Berwick, who attacked them at Ralsfemulling, with 1500 men, in September, 1689. They often defeated the royal parties, particularly in August, the same year, near Lisnaek, where eight troops of their horse, and three companies of foot were attacked by colonel Hamilton, with a regiment of dragoons, three troops of horse, and a considerable body of foot: the Enneskilling men obliged them to retire, killing 130, and taking thirty-nine, without one man being lost on their side. On the same day, being reinforced to the number of 1800 horse and 1500 foot, under the command of colonel Woolsley, they marched to the enemy at Neuton Butler, repulsed them from a hill where they were advantageously posted, and the foot falling in upon the rebels through the bog, they killed 100, and took their cannon. There were about 2,000 of the rebels killed and drowned, and 300 taken, amongst them fifty officers. The Enneskillings, under colonel Lloyd, also routed 5,000 of the rebels, who attacked Sligo;

and though much inferior in number, killed and wounded 800 men, and took 200 prisoners. In March, 1690, they also took Belturbett, and by their valour contributed to the victory of the Boyne.

EPAMINONDAS, a famous Theban, descended from the ancient kings of Bœotia. He was celebrated for his private virtues and military accomplishments. His love of truth was so great that he never disgraced himself by falsehood. He formed a most sacred and inviolable friendship with Pelopidas, whose life he saved in battle. By his advice Pelopidas delivered Thebes from the power of Lacedæmon. This was the signal of war. Epaminondas was set at the head of the Theban armies, and defeated the Spartans at the celebrated battle of Leuctra, about 371 years B. C. Epaminondas entered the territories of Lacedæmon with 50,000 men. Here he gained many friends and partizans; but, at his return from Thebes, he was seized as a traitor for violating the laws of his country. While he was making the Theban arms victorious on every side, he neglected the law which forbade any citizen to retain in his hands the supreme power more than one month, and all his eminent services seemed unable to redeem him from death. He paid implicit obedience to the laws of his country, and only begged of his judges that it might be inscribed on his tomb, that he had suffered death for saving his country from ruin. This animated reproach was felt; he was pardoned, and invested again with the sovereign power. He was successful in a war in Thessaly, and assisted the Eleans against the Lacedæmonians. The hostile armies met near Mantinea, and while Epaminondas was bravely fighting in the thickest of the enemy, he received a fatal wound in the breast, and expired, exclaiming, that he died unconquered, hearing that the Bœotians had obtained the victory, in the forty-eighth year of his age, 363 B. C.

EPIRUS. This country was first inhabited by the Chaones, and the

kingdom of Epirus may be said to have begun with Pyrrhus, the son of Achilles, about the year 900 B. C. About 280 B. C. another Pyrrhus, king of this country, distinguished himself greatly by his wars with the Romans, in favour of the Tarentines. Upon the death of Deidamia, the last of this race, about the year 240 B. C. the Epirots formed themselves into a republic, which was reduced by Paulus Æmilius, the Roman general, in 167 B. C., all the towns being destroyed, and the inhabitants enslaved in one day. Upon the taking of Constantinople by the Latins, in 1204, Michael Angelus seized this country, and his posterity held it till it was taken by the Turks, under Amurath II. in 1432. In 1447, the famous Scanderbeg revolted from the Turks; but it was finally reduced by Mohammed II. in 1466.

ERA; that of Nabonassar, was 747 B. C.; Philipptic, or death of Alexander, 324 B. C.; of Contracts, or Seleucidæ, 312 B. C.; the Christians make their era the birth of Christ, which was A. M. 3962, but did not use this reckoning till the year 600, using, in the mean time, the civil account of the empire; the Mohammedans began their hejira, (for so they term their computation,) from the flight of their prophet from Mecca, when he was driven thence by the Philarchæ, A. D. 617; the Grecians reckon by olympiads, the first of which is placed in the year of the world 3157; but this account perishing under the Constantinopolitan emperors, they reckoned by indictions, every indiction containing fifteen years, and the first beginning A. D. 313, which, among chronologers are still used; the Romans reckoned first from the building of their city, which was A. M. 3113, and afterwards from the sixteenth year of the emperor Augustus, A. M. 3936, which reckoning was used among the Spaniards till the reign of Ferdinand the Catholic; the Jews had divers epochæ; as 1. From the creation of the world in the beginning of time;—2. From the universal deluge, ann. 2656;—3. From the confusion of

tongues, ann. 2786;—4. From Abraham's journey out of Chaldea into Canaan, ann. 2921;—5. From the departure of the children of Israel out of Egypt, ann. 1451;—6. From the year of the jubilee, ann. 2499;—7. From the building of Solomon's temple, ann. 2932; and 8. From the captivity of Babylon, A. M. 3357; but in historical computation of time, are used only the two most ordinary epochs, the world's creation, and Christ's appearance in the flesh; the Christian era began to be used in Italy, &c. in 525, and in England in 816.

ERICUS, or HENRICUS, the name of fourteen kings of Sweden, the most considerable of whom in history were Ericus I. who enlarged his dominions, peopled the Danish isles; undertook several expeditions, and sacked Rugia.—Ericus III., by his conquests, enlarged his dominions more considerably.—Ericus IV. was applauded for his wit and courage.—Ericus IX. was put to death by his subjects for endeavouring to introduce Christianity into the kingdom.—Ericus XII., fortunate in several expeditions, and highly esteemed for his military conduct, reigned twenty-eight years, and died in 1250.—Ericus XIV., eldest son of Gustavus I. began his reign in 1560. was a great admirer of learned men, and well skilled in astronomy and mathematics. He confirmed the privileges which the kings, his predecessors, had granted to the cities on the Baltic; and relieved the town of Revel, which placed itself under his protection; for so doing he displeased the Muscovites. He was also at variance with the town of Lubeck, the kings of Denmark and Poland; and, being jealous of his brother John, marched against him, and put him in irons. His ill-success in war so incensed him that he seized and put to death the chief officers of his army, as guilty of a conspiracy, without hearing their defence. He was afterwards besieged at Stockholm, and, surrendering himself, was, with his wife, cast into prison, and deposed.

ERIVAN, IRVAN, or IRVIN, taken from the Turks by the king of Persia, in 1635. In 1724, the pa-

HISTORY.

cha of Diarbekir encamped before it with a numerous army, of which he lost 24,000 in four attempts to storm it. In 1748 it was taken by Nadir Shah, and, in 1808, the Russians blockaded it, and endeavoured to take it by storm, but they were repulsed, and lost half their army in its retreat to Teflis.

ESCURIAL, a magnificent palace in Spain, erected by Philip II. in commemoration of the victory of St. Quentin, gained over the French in 1557.

ESSEX, earl of, the favourite of queen Elizabeth, presuming too much on her favour, on a certain occasion, and meeting with opposition in council, was so heated by argument that, in a fit of passion, he turned his back upon her in a contemptuous manner. Elizabeth gave him a box on the ear, when he clapped his hand on his sword, swearing he would not bear such usage, even from Henry VIII. and immediately withdrew from court. She was soon induced, however, to pardon him, and he was appointed her deputy in Ireland, and was entrusted with the command of 20,000 foot and 2,000 horse. His arbitrary, and often lawless, conduct in Ireland drew upon him the severe displeasure of his mistress. His imprudence and secret machinations to have James's right to the succession openly declared, caused him to be summoned to attend the council, and with his friend, the earl of Southampton, to be brought to trial. He suffered decollation in the Tower, in the thirty-fifth year of his age.

ESSLING, battle of, in 1809, between Napoleon and the Austrians. The archduke had intended to make a grand effort for the preservation of Vienna, by suddenly crossing the Danube, and hazarding a battle in front of the capital; but the rapid operations of Napoleon having frustrated his design, he took a position near the left bank of the river. The two hostile armies, on the operations of which the fate of Europe was suspended, were posted on the opposite sides of the Danube; and the passage of such a river, in the face of a for-

midable enemy, must be considered as one of the most difficult and daring enterprises recorded in military history. Opposite Ebersdorff, the head-quarters of Napoleon, the Danube divides into three branches, formed by two islands. The distance from the right bank to the first island, which is only about 130 toises in circuit, is about 1000 toises. From this island to the larger, which is named Inder Lobau, and is about six English miles in length, and four and a half in breadth, the distance is 120 toises; in this branch of the river the stream runs with the greatest force. The third branch, which separates Inder Lobau from the left bank, is only seventy toises in breadth (the French toise is about six feet English measure). Napoleon, sensible of the expediency of bringing the contest to a speedy decision, on the 19th of May ordered bridges of pontoons to be constructed over the two first branches. This was speedily effected, and the emperor having passed over, took possession, on the 20th, of Inder Lobau. He then caused a bridge to be thrown over from that island to the left bank, and this arm of the river requiring only fifteen pontoons, they were fixed in the space of three hours. This work being completed, the French began to pass over in the night; and, early in the morning, the emperor, accompanied by the prince of Neufchatel, and the dukes of Rivoli and Montebello, arriving on the left bank, examined the localities, and determined the position for waiting the impending attack, posting his right at the village of Essling, and his left at that of Gross Aspern, situated at about four miles to the westward. On the 21st, the archduke receiving intelligence from the outposts, that a considerable part of the French army had passed the river, and that the rest were rapidly following, judged the moment to be arrived in which an attack might be made with the greatest hope of success. According to the French accounts, his army consisted of 90,000 men, with 900 pieces of artillery; of the num-

ber of the French no positive statement has appeared, but it is certain that they had got only a small part of their artillery over the river. At four o'clock in the afternoon, the battle commenced, and at night the victory remained undecided; the two hostile armies retaining their positions, remained all night under arms, employed in preparations for renewing the combat. On the 22d of May, the battle re-commenced at four o'clock in the morning; at seven, intelligence was brought to Napoleon, that a sudden swell of the Danube having set afloat a great number of trees which had been cut down near Vienna, the accumulated mass had carried away the bridges thrown over the two first arms of the river. Some of the Austrian accounts say they were destroyed by the means of fire-boats floated down the Danube. All the reserve parks of artillery which were advancing, were, by the loss of the bridges, detained on the right bank, as was also part of the heavy artillery, and the whole of the duke of Auerstadt's corps. The cartridges for the artillery and infantry being with the reserve park, could not be brought across the river. These circumstances induced Napoleon to put a stop to the movements in advance, and, at length, retired, in regular order, to their former position in the island of Inder Lobau.

ETLINGEN, in Germany, celebrated for the lines which were drawn hence to the Rhine, but were forced by marshal Berwick, in 1734. In July, 1796, the Austrians were defeated by the French, in this neighbourhood.

EUGENE (Francis), prince of Savoy, was born in 1663. His father was Eugene Maurice, general of the Swiss, governor of Champagne, and earl of Soissons: his mother, Donna Olympia Mancini, niece to Cardinal Mazarine. He was educated for the church; but after the death of his father, and the exile of his mother, he and his brother Philip went to Vienna, where they met with a gracious reception. In the war which broke out with Turkey, prince Philip fell

in battle, and left his command to Eugene, who signalised himself at the siege of Vienna in 1683, as he afterwards did at Buda. He next served against the French in Italy; and in 1697 commanded the army in Hungary, where he gained a splendid victory, in which the Turks lost above 30,000 men, with their commander the grand vizier. On the breaking out of the war, occasioned by the disputes about the Spanish succession, Eugene commanded the Imperialists in Italy, where he was opposed to Villeroy, whom he made prisoner. After this he acted in conjunction with Marlborough. In 1712 the prince came to England, to prevail upon that court to continue the war, but could not succeed. Compelled to act on the defensive, he exerted himself to the utmost; and, in 1714, settled preliminary articles with marshal Villars at Rastadt, which ended soon after in a general peace. In 1716 the war with the Turks was resumed, and the prince again took the field in Hungary, where he attacked the enemy in their camp, and obtained a complete victory, which was followed by the capture of Temeswar and Belgrade. From this time to 1733 Eugene remained at Vienna, employed in the councils of the emperor; but in that year he assumed the command in Italy, where he experienced various success in the contest with the combined powers of France, Spain, and Sardinia. He was found dead in his bed, April 10, 1736.

EUMENES, a Greek officer in the army of Alexander, son of a charioteer. He conquered Paphlagonia and Cappadocia, of which he obtained the government, till the power and jealousy of Antigonus obliged him to retire. He joined his forces to those of Perdiccas, and defeated Craterus and Neoptolemus. Neoptolemus perished by the hands of Eumenes. When Craterus had been killed during the war, his remains received an honourable funeral from the hand of the conqueror; and Eumenes, after weeping over the ashes of a man who once was his

HISTORY.

dearest friend, sent his remains to his relations in Macedonia. Eumenes fought against Antipater and conquered him; and after the death of Perdiccas, his ally, his arms were directed against Antigonus, by whom he was conquered, chiefly by the treacherous conduct of his officers. This fatal battle obliged him to disband the greater part of his army, to secure himself a retreat, and he fled with only 700 faithful attendants to Nora, a fortified place on the confines of Cappadocia, where he was soon besieged by the conqueror. He supported the siege for a year with courage and resolution, but his soldiers, grown desperate, and bribed by the offers of the enemy, betrayed him into the hands of Antigonus. The asperity of Antigonus vanished in a few days; and Eumenes, delivered from the weight of chains, was permitted to enjoy the company of his friends. Even Antigonus hesitated whether he should not restore to his liberty, a man with whom he had lived in the greatest intimacy, while both were subservient to the command of Alexander. These secret emotions of pity and humanity were not a little increased by the petitions of his son Demetrius, for the release of Eumenes. But the calls of ambition prevailed; and when Antigonus recollected what an active enemy he had in his power, he ordered Eumenes to be put to death in the prison. His bloody commands were executed B. C. 315. Some imagine he was murdered without the knowledge of his conqueror.

EUPHRATES, a disciple of Plato, who governed Macedonia with absolute authority in the reign of Perdiccas, and rendered himself odious by his cruelty and pedantry. After the death of Perdiccas, he was murdered by Parmenio.

EUPORUS, servant of Caius Gracchus: he defended Gracchus as he fled from the hill Aventine, and when he was slain, he slew himself.

EURIPIDES, a celebrated tragical poet, in great favour with

Archelaus. He was born at Salamis on the day that the army of Xerxes was routed by the Athenians. He wrote seventy-five tragedies; only nineteen are extant. He was called *Misogynes*, from his hatred of women. In the seventy-fifth year of his age he was torn into pieces by dogs.

EUROPE, the least extensive, but the most improved of the four quarters of the globe, is situated between the 36th and 71st degrees of N. lat., having from south to north a breadth of about 2000 miles, and from east to west a length of nearly 3000. It contains, by calculation, about two millions and an half of square miles, and is bounded by the sea in all directions except the east, where it adjoins Asia by a boundary line.

The principal islands of Europe are Britain and Ireland, in the Atlantic; Sicily, Majorca, Minorca, Malta, Candia, Eubœa, in the Mediterranean; and Zealand, Funen, Lapland, Falster, Bornholm, Aland, in the Baltic. To these are to be added, the extensive but uncultivated Iceland, and the still more dreary regions of Spitzbergen and Nova Zembla. The great rivers of Europe are the Danube, Volga, Rhine, Dnieper, Vistula, Dniester, Don, Dwina, Elbe, Tagus, Douro, Loire, Rhone, Garonne. The principal lakes are Ladoga, Onega, and the Peipus in Russia; the Wenner, Wetter, and Mælar, in Sweden; along with the less extensive, but much better known lakes of Geneva and Constance. The chief ranges of mountains are the Alps, the Pyrenees, and the Carpathian ridge; to which are to be added the Scandinavian chain, separating Sweden from Norway; the ridge of the Hæmus to the south of Turkey, and the long line of the Apennines, extending from the north to the south of Italy.

The following is a list of the principal states of Europe, in the form given to them by the treaties of 1814 and 1815, and of the population of each:

Sweden	2,000,000
Norway	900,000
Denmark	1,200,000

Russia in Europe, including Finland and Russian Poland	25,400,000
Netherlands, kingdom of,	5,230,000
Great Britain and Ireland, with Malta and Gibraltar	17,200,000
France	29,250,000
Saxony, Baden, Hesse-Cassel, Hesse-Darmstadt, and all lesser German states	5,700,000
Prussian monarchy	10,700,000
Bavaria	3,900,000
Wurtemberg	1,400,000
Hanover, kingdom of	1,300,000
The Austrian empire, including Lombardy and Austrian Poland	28,000,000
Switzerland, 22 cantons	1,790,000
Piedmont, and other Sardinian states	4,000,000
Italy, exclusive of Piedmont and Lombardy, but including Sicily	11,000,000
Spain	10,400,000
Portugal	2,700,000
Turkey in Europe	7,500,000
Ionian republic	230,000
Total	182,130,000

EURYALUS I. a prince of Peloponnesus, who was present at the siege of Troy.

EURYALUS II. brother of Hyberbius; he first built houses of brick at Athens.

EUSTATHIUS, a bishop of Antioch at the time of Constantine. He wrote against the Arians, and was banished to Tripolis, where he died.

EVAGORAS, a king of Cyprus, who retook Salamis, which had been taken from his father by the Persians. He made war against Artaxerxes the king of Persia, with the assistance of the Egyptians, Arabians, and Tyrians, and obtained some advantage over the fleet of his enemy. The Persians, however, soon repaired their losses, and Evagoras saw himself de-

feated by sea and land, and obliged to be tributary to the power of Artaxerxes, and to be stripped of all his dominions, except the town of Salamis. He was assassinated soon after this change of fortune, by an eunuch, 374 B. C.

EVESHAM, battle of, between prince Edward and the earl of Leicester, took place on the 4th of August, 1265. Leicester's army, by living on the mountains of Wales, without bread, which was not then much used by the inhabitants, had been extremely weakened by sickness and also by desertion, was soon broken by the victorious royalists; while his Welsh allies, accustomed only to a desultory kind of war, immediately took to flight, and were pursued with great slaughter. Leicester himself, asking for quarter, was slain in the heat of the action. The victory at Evesham proved decisive in favour of the royalists; and they used it with moderation.

EYLAU, battle of, between the French and Russians, on the 8th of February, 1807, in which both claimed the victory: the Russians retired behind the Pregel, and the French, after remaining some days on the field of battle, fell back on the Vistula.

EZZELINO, born at Onara, in La Marca Trevigiana, flourished in the thirteenth century. He made himself master of Verona, Padua, and some other cities of Italy, and became an outrageous tyrant. He contemned the anathemas of Gregory IX. Innocent IV. and Alexander IV., and hearing that the citizens of Padua were up in rebellion against him, he put 12,000 of the people of the country, which he had in his army, to death in one day. At length being taken by the confederate princes of Lombardy, he was carried to Soncin; where he died mad, in 1259, after a tyrannical reign of forty years.

HISTORY.

F.

FABERT, (Abraham,) a French officer. He distinguished himself by saving the royal army at the retreat of Mentz, which has been compared to the famous exploit of Xenophon. He was made governor of Sedan, which he fortified in an admirable manner. In 1654, he took Stenay, and was appointed marshal of France in 1658. He refused the order of knighthood. He died in 1662.

FABII, a noble and powerful family at Rome, who derived their name from *faba*, a bean, because some of their ancestors cultivated that pulse. They were said to be descended from Fabius, a supposed son of Hercules; by an Italian nymph; and were once so numerous, that they took upon themselves to wage war against the Veientes. They came to a general engagement, near the Cremera, in which all the family, consisting of 306 men, were totally slain, B.C. 477. There only remained one, whose tender age had detained him at Rome, and from him arose the noble Fabii in the following ages. The family was divided into six different branches, the *Ambusti*, the *Maximi*, the *Vibulani*, the *Buttones*, the *Dorsones*, and the *Pictores*; the three first are frequently mentioned in the Roman history.

FABIUS, (Maximus Rullianus,) was the first of the Fabii who obtained the surname of *Maximus*, for lessening the power of the populace at elections. He was master of horse, and his victories over the Samnites, in that capacity, nearly cost him his life, because he engaged the enemy without the command of the dictator. He was five times consul, twice dictator, and once censor. He triumphed over seven different nations, in the neighbourhood of Rome, and rendered himself illustrious by his patriotism.

FABIUS, (Q. Maximus,) a celebrated Roman, who, from a dull and unpromising childhood, burst into deeds of valor and heroism,

and was gradually raised by merit to the highest offices of the state.

In his first consulship, he obtained a victory over Liguria, and the fatal battle of Thrasymenus occasioned his election to the dictatorship. In this important office he began to oppose Hannibal, not by fighting him in the open field, like his predecessors, but continually harassing his army, by countermarches and ambuscades, for which he received the surname of *Cunctator* or delayer. When he had laid down his office of dictator, his successors, for a while, followed his plan; but the rashness of Varro, and his contempt for the operations of Fabius, occasioned the fatal battle of Cannæ. Tarentum was obliged to surrender to his arms, after the battle of Cannæ; and, on that occasion, the Carthaginian enemy observed, that Fabius was the Hannibal of Rome. When he had made an agreement with Hannibal, for the ransom of the captives, which was totally disapproved by the Roman senate, he sold all his estates to pay the money, rather than forfeit his word to the enemy. The bold proposal of young Scipio to go and carry the war from Italy to Africa, was rejected by Fabius, as chimerical and dangerous. He did not, however, live to see the success of the Roman arms under Scipio, and the conquest of Carthage, by measures, which he treated with contempt, and heard with indignation. He died in the 100th year of his age, after he had been five times consul, and twice honoured with a triumph.

FAGIUS (Paul,) one of the reformers, whose German name was Buchlein, was born at Rheinsabern, in 1504. He received his education, first at Heidelberg, and next at Strasburgh; after which, he became a schoolmaster; but quitted that occupation for the ministry at Isne. When the plague broke out at that place, he remained, administering to the relief of the poor, after the town

had been abandoned by the wealthier inhabitants. From thence he removed to Strasburg, and next to Heidelberg, where he obtained a professorship; but, in 1549, he came to England with Bucer, on the invitation of Cranmer, who intended to settle them at Cambridge. Here Fagius died, in 1550. By the most disgraceful bigotry, the body of Fagius was taken up at the accession of Mary, and burnt.

FAIRFAX, (sir Thomas,) was the eldest son of Ferdinando, lord Fairfax, and born at Denton, in Yorkshire, in 1611. He studied at St. John's college, Cambridge, but being of a martial disposition, entered early into the military service, as a volunteer, under lord Vere, in Holland. At the breaking out of the civil wars he took a decided part against the king; as his father also had done, under whom he served till he obtained a principal command. He contributed to the victory of Naseby; and next went into the west of England, the whole of which he subdued. Cromwell, with whom he was associated, deceived him, and Fairfax, when too late, saw his error in pushing things to extremities. In 1647, he succeeded to the family estate and honours; but still continued in public employment, under a government which he disapproved. He assisted, however, in the Restoration, for which he obtained little or no notice, and died at his seat, in 1671.

FALKLAND, (Lord,) viceroy of Ireland, at the commencement of the reign of Charles I. On account of the clamorous complaints of the Protestants, that his administration was favourable to the Catholics, he was recalled. He was, for some time, secretary to Charles; and, with the purest integrity, he possessed the richest gifts of nature. In all the virtues that adorn humanity, Falkland was pre-eminent. He fell, at the battle of Newbury, in the 34th year of his age.

FAMAGUSTA, a sea-port town of the island of Cyprus, which, after belonging to different states

of Italy, was besieged by the Turks, in 1570, and surrendered, by capitulation, in 1571. The conditions were disgracefully violated; the victor first causing the companion of the commander to be massacred, and himself to be slayed alive. The Ottoman army consisted of 200,000 men, 94,000 of whom were Turks. During the siege 75,000 men perished, and 140,000 bomb-shells were expended.

FAMINE, one which lasted seven years, 1708, B. C.; at Rome, when many persons threw themselves into the Tiber, 440 B. C.; in Britain, so that the inhabitants ate the bark of trees, 373, A. D.; one in Scotland, where thousands were starved, 306; in England and Wales, where 40,000 were starved, 310; all over Britain, 325; at Constantinople, 446; in Italy, where parents ate their children, 450; in Scotland, 576; all over England, Wales, and Scotland, 739; another in Wales, 747; in Wales and Scotland, 792; again in Scotland, 803; again in Scotland, when thousands were starved, 823; a severe one in Wales, 836; in Scotland, which lasted four years, 954; famines in England, 864, 974, 976, 1005; in Scotland, which lasted two years, 1047; in England, 1059, 1067; in England and France, from 1193 to 1195; in England, 1251, 1315, 1318, 1335, 1346; in England and France, called the dear summer, 1358; in England, 1380 and 1438, so great that bread was made of fern roots; in 1565, two millions were expended on the importation of corn; one in 1748; another in 1798: in the province of Vellore, in 1810, by which 6000 people perished; in the diocese of Drontheim, in Norway, in consequence of the intercepting of supplies by Sweden, 5000 persons, 1813.

FALSTOFF, (John,) a famous general, born in Norfolk, about 1378. He distinguished himself in Ireland, and afterwards in France, as a statesman and warrior. He was dangerously wounded at the battle of Agincourt, but recovered, and had the manor of Fritense, near Harfleur, settled on him for life. After a great variety of services and many brilliant actions,

HISTORY.

he returned to England, where he died, in 1439.

• **PAWKES**, (Guy,) the principal agent in the gunpowder-plot, in the reign of James I. who, being discovered, and, having betrayed his accomplices to the number of eighty, was executed in 1605.

PECKENHAM, (John de,) was born near the forest of Peckenham, in Worcestershire. He became chaplain to Bonner; and, in 1449, was sent to the Tower. Queen Mary made him her chaplain, dean of St. Paul's, and abbot of Westminster. He held a conference with lady Jane Grey, who was not moved by his arguments, any more than Cranmer, Ridley, and Latimer, with whom he disputed at Oxford. His conduct to the Protestants, however, entitled him to respect; and he interceded, with Mary, for the release of her sister. He was the last mitred abbot that sat in the House of Lords, where he opposed the reformation. He died in the castle of Wisbeach, in 1565.

FELTON, an enthusiast in the reign of Charles I. who had served under the duke of Buckingham, and had met with some disappointment in his hopes of promotion, and from some other causes, formed the desperate resolution of dispatching him. Accordingly, while Buckingham was at Portsmouth, standing in a narrow passage, engaged in conversation, Felton suddenly stabbed him in the breast with a knife. This event happened on the 23d of August, 1628.

FEODAL, or **FEUDAL LAWS**, the tenure of land, by suit and service, to the lord or owner of it, introduced into England by the Saxons about 600. This slavery increased under William I. 1066, who, dividing the kingdom into baronies, gave them to certain persons, and required those persons to furnish the king with money, and a stated number of soldiers. It was discountenanced in France by Louis XI. about 1470; was limited in England by Henry VII. in 1495; but abolished by statute, 12th Charles II. 1689.

FERDINAND I. of that name, surnamed the great, king of Cas-

tile and Leon, took Contimbría, Visco, and great part of Portugal from the Moors. And being unjustly provoked by his own brother, Garcias the Fourth, king of Navarre, for detaining from him several of his towns, and designing mischief against his person, he overthrew and slew him. He died in the year 1065, after a reign of forty years.—**FERDINAND II.** was the eldest son of Alphonso VIII. and had, for his share, the kingdoms of Leon and Galicia. He had wars with Alphonso Henriquez, king of Portugal, for the frontier town of Badajoz; where, in the first battle, he took Sancho, prince of Portugal, prisoner; and, in the next, the king of Portugal himself. He died in 1188.—**FERDINAND III.** re-united the kingdoms of Leon and Castile, carried his arms against the Moors, took Cordova, in 1236, the kingdoms of Murcia and Seville, in 1248; and was designing the conquest of Morocco, but died, in 1252, after he had reigned thirty-five years in Castile, and twenty-two in Leon.—**FERDINAND IV.** the son of Sancho III. surnamed the valiant, made war upon the king of Grenada, and defeated his army, coming to the relief of the city of Almeira. He was found dead in his bed in the year 1312.—**FERDINAND V.** surnamed the Catholic, was the son of John II. king of Arragon. He gained a splendid victory at Toro, from Alphonso V. king of Portugal. Afterwards, carrying his arms against the Moors, he conquered the kingdom of Grenada in eight years, and expelled the Moors out of Spain in 1492. He also conquered Pignon de Velez, and Oran, in Africa, the kingdom of Naples, and that of Navarre, and died about the beginning of the year 1516. The French disputing his title to the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily, it was proposed to divide them between the two crowns, which the Spaniards assented to; but a dispute arising about the limits, they drove the French quite out, and soon after possessed themselves of the kingdom of Navarre, with the assist-

ance of king Henry VIII. of England; whom they engaged in a war with France, by promising to assist him with their forces to recover Guyenne.—**FERDINAND I.** king of Naples and Sicily, was the natural son of Alphonso V. king of Arragon, legitimated by Eugenius IV. and began his reign in 1458. He lost his kingdoms twice, and twice recovered them by the Pope's assistance, Pius II., obliging Scanderbeg to pass into Italy, and defend him against John of Calabria. Upon the news of Charles VIIIth's intended invasion of Naples, he offered the king of France to become his tributary; which offer being rejected, he died in 1494, in the seventy-first year of his age; after he had reigned near thirty-six years.—**FERDINAND II.** succeeded Alphonso in 1494, and upon the approach of Charles VIII. fled into the island of Ischia; but the French having retired, by the assistance of the princes of Italy, he recovered the greater part of his kingdom. He died in 1496.

FERGUSON, (Robert,) a non-conformist divine, and politician, was a native of Scotland, and benefited in Kent, till he was ejected in 1662. After this, he became a plotter against government, and was concerned with the duke of Monmouth, whose memorial he drew up. He always contrived to escape, though large sums were offered for his apprehension. At the revolution he came into favour. He died in 1714.

FERRAR, (Robert,) an English martyr, was born at Halifax, in Yorkshire. He became a canon regular of the order of St. Augustine, and studied at Cambridge and Oxford; but, on embracing the doctrines of the reformation, he was made chaplain to archbishop Crammer, after whose example he took a wife. In 1548, he was consecrated bishop of St. David's; but, not being able to pay the first-fruits and tenths, he was imprisoned. In the reign of Mary, he was brought before Gardiner, on a charge of heresy, and condemned to the flames; which sen-

tence was executed at Caermarthen, March 30, 1558.

FERRETI, (Æmilii,) a civilian, was born at Castello Franco, in Tuscauy, in 1489. He became an advocate and professor of law at Rome, where he was appointed secretary to Leo X. He left Italy, and went to France, where he taught law at Venice, and was made counsellor in the parliament of Paris by Francis I., who sent him on an embassy to Venice and Florence. He next attended Charles V. in his African expedition; after which, he settled at Avignon, where he died, in 1532.

FEUQUIERES, (Manasses de Pas, marquis de,) a French commander, was born of a noble family, at Saumur, in 1590. He contributed greatly to the capture of Rochelle; after which he was sent ambassador to Germany, and died, in 1640, of the wounds he had received at the siege of Thionville.

FEVERSHAM, (lord,) disbanded his troops, when informed of the flight of James II. and of the approach of the Prince of Orange.

FEZ. (See Morocco.)

FIGUERAS, a town of Catalonia, with a magnificent castle, which was in the hands of the French, but surprised by the insurgent Spaniards, April 10, 1811. The French garrison were made prisoners, without firing a shot; but the place being again besieged, was compelled, after a gallant defence, to surrender, August 19, for want of provisions.

FINLAND, an extensive country, in the north of Europe, formerly belonging to Sweden, but overrun by a Russian army, in 1808, and annexed to that empire. (See Russia.)

FIRES in London, one which destroyed great part of that city, 962; again in 1067, 1132, and in 1136; on London-bridge, which destroyed 2000 persons, July 10, 1212; the remarkable fire that burnt down 113,000 houses, the city gates, Guildhall, &c. eighty-six churches, amongst which was St. Paul's cathedral, and 400 streets; broke out near the Monument, Sept. 2, 1666, and burnt four days and nights; Drury-lane playhouse and

HISTORY.

near sixty houses were burnt, Jan. 1671-2; in Southwark, 600 houses, 1676; White-hall palace burnt, April, 1690; and Jan. 5, 1698; 150 houses were burnt down in Nightingale-lane, Wapping, Dec. 4, 1716; Cornhill, March 25, 1748, Nov. 10, 1759, and Nov. 7, 1765; Lincoln's-inn-square, June 27, 1752; King-street, Covent-garden, fifty houses burnt, Dec. 23, 1759; in Pope's-head-alley, Cornhill, Dec. 1, 1776; London-bridge water-works, Oct. 31, 1779; the Opera-house, June 17, 1789; the Albion-mills destroyed, March 2, 1791; the Pantheon, in Oxford-street, Jan. 14, 1792; at Wapping, where upwards of 630 houses were destroyed, together with an East India warehouse, July 22 and 23, 1794; there was 40,000*l.* worth of sugar in one sugar-house; the whole is said to be the most dreadful accident of the kind since the fire of London in 1666; at Astley's theatre, near Westminster-bridge, Aug. 17, 1794; church of St. Paul's, Covent-garden, Sept. 17, 1795; Covent-garden theatre destroyed, Sept. 20, 1806; the south-east wing of St. James's palace, Jan. 21, 1809; Drury-lane theatre destroyed, Feb. 24, 1809.

FISHER, bishop of Rochester, together with sir Thomas More, refused to take the oath of allegiance to Henry VIII. He was a prelate eminent for his learning and morals, more than for his ecclesiastical dignities, and for the high favour which he long enjoyed with the king. He was thrown into prison, and, not only deprived of all his revenues, but of his very clothes, and allowed nothing but rags. After a twelvemonth's imprisonment, he was tried, condemned, and executed.

FISHGUARD, or **FISGUARD**, in South Wales, where, in 1797, a body of 1,200 French troops landed; the whole were soon taken prisoners.

FITZWILLIAM, (William,) earl of Southampton, and a naval commander, was the son of sir Thomas Fitzwilliam, of Aldwarke, in Yorkshire. In 1512, he sailed in the fleet against France, and was wounded in an engagement off Brest. Shortly afterwards he was

at the siege of Tournay, and, for his bravery, received the honour of knighthood. In 1520, he was vice-admiral of England, and the next year obtained a grant of the manor of Navesby, at which time he was ambassador to France. Soon after this he was recalled, and, on a rupture between the two countries, had the command of a fleet, with which he assisted in the taking of Morlaix. In 1523, he was sent to conclude a treaty of peace; and, in 1529, he was one of those who subscribed articles of impeachment against Wolsey. He attended his royal master in his interview with the king of France at Boulogne; and, in 1537, was made earl of Southampton, and lord privy-seal. In 1542, he was sent to Scotland, but died on the passage, at Newcastle, the same year.

FITZJAMES (James), duke of Berwick, natural son of James II. by Arabella Churchill, was born at Moulins in 1670. He entered into the French service, and at the age of fifteen was wounded at the siege of Buda. In 1688 he went to Ireland, where he distinguished himself at the siege of Londonderry, and the battle of the Boyne. He was afterwards employed on various other services, for which he was made a marshal of France. In 1707, he gained the victory of Almanza, which fixed Philip V. on the throne of Spain; and, in 1714, he took Barcelona, being then generalissimo of the Spanish forces. On the breaking out of the war between France and Germany, in 1733, he was again employed, but was killed the year following, at the siege of Philipsburgh.

FLAMINIUS, (T. Q.) or **FLAMININUS**, a celebrated Roman, raised to the consulship, A. U. C. 536. He was trained in the art of war against Hannibal, and was sent at the head of the Roman troops against Philip, king of Macedon, and in his expedition he met with uncommon success. The Greeks gradually declared themselves his firmest supporters, and he totally defeated Philip on the confines of Epirus, and made all Locris, Pho-

cis, and Thessaly, tributary to the Roman power. He granted peace to the conquered monarch, and proclaimed all Greece free and independent at the Isthmian games. This celebrated action procured the name of patrons of Greece to the Romans, and insensibly paved their way to universal dominion. Flaminius behaved among them with the greatest policy, and by his ready compliance with their national customs and prejudices, gained uncommon popularity, and received the name of father and deliverer of Greece. He was afterwards sent ambassador to king Prusias, who had given refuge to Hannibal, and there his prudence and artifice hastened out of the world a man who had long been the terror of the Romans. Flaminius was found dead in his bed, after a life spent in the greatest glory, in which he had imitated with success the virtues of his model—Scipio.

FLAMINIUS, (C.) a Roman consul, of a turbulent disposition, who was drawn into a battle near the lake of Thrasymenus, by the artifice of Hannibal. He was killed in the engagement, with an immense number of Romans, B. C. 217. The conqueror wished to give a burial to his body, but it was not found in the heaps of slain.

FLANDERS was part of the territories of the ancient Belgæ, who were conquered by Julius Cæsar, about 47 B. C. The Franks seized it about 412, and in 864 it was granted to Baldwin I., by the title of earl of Flanders, the sovereignty being reserved to France. This earldom, by the marriage of Philip, duke of Burgundy, with Margaret, daughter of Lewis de Malatin, earl of Flanders, in 1369, came to the house of Burgundy; and it passed to the house of Austria by the marriage of Mary, daughter and heiress of Charles the Hardy, to Maximilian, emperor of Germany. Still the sovereignty was in France till 1525, when Charles V. taking Francis I. prisoner, at the battle of Pavia, was released from that servitude. In 1556, Charles resigned these territories to his son Philip, king of Spain.

In 1662, Dunkirk was ceded to the French by the English, who had possessed it from the year 1658. Afterward the French made more conquests in Flanders, which were confirmed to them at the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in the year 1668, and they were rather enlarged than diminished after that time.

In 1725, at the treaty of Vienna, the Spanish dominions in the Netherlands were confirmed to Germany, as had been stipulated in the treaty of London in 1722. The whole of this country was conquered by the French in 1794, and, under the name of Belgium, was united to the republic of France.

FLEETWOOD (Charles), a parliament general in the civil wars, was the son of sir William Fleetwood, knight, cup-bearer to James I. and Charles I., and comptroller of Woodstock-park. In 1644, the subject of this article was made colonel of horse, and governor of Bristol. He was afterwards raised to the rank of lieutenant-general, and had a share in the defeat of Charles II. at Worcester. On the death of Ireton he married his widow, and, being now related to Cromwell, he was appointed deputy of Ireland, in which place he was succeeded by Cromwell's younger son, Henry. Fleetwood joined in deposing Richard, after which he became one of the council of state, and commander-in-chief of the forces. He was favourable to the restoration, and then lived in retirement at Stoke Newington, where he died after the restoration.

FLEURY, (Cardinal), preceptor to Louis XV. became prime minister in the disgrace and fall of his rival the duke of Bourbon. His administration was conducted with great skill and address; commerce and industry flourished under him, and he had the fortune to conciliate the differences which existed between the courts of London and Madrid. He died in 1743.

FLINT-CASTLE, in Wales, where Richard II. was seized, and surrendered his crown to the duke of Lancaster, afterwards Henry IV. It was also garrisoned for

HISTORY.

Charles by sir Roger Mostyn, but surrendered to the parliamentary forces.

FLODDENFIELD, battle of, between the forces of Henry VIII. under the earl of Surrey, and those of the king of Scotland, who commanded in person, was fought on the 9th of September, 1513. The English divided their army into two lines. Lord Howard led the main body of the first line, sir Edmund Howard the right wing, and sir Marmaduke Constable the left. The earl of Surrey himself commanded the main body of the second line, lord Dacres the right wing, and sir Edward Stanley the left. The middle division of the Scots was led by the king himself; the right by the earl of Huntley, assisted by lord Hume; the left by the earls of Lenox and Argyle. A fourth division, under the earl of Bothwell, made a body of reserve. —A furious battle commenced, which was continued till night separated the combatants. The victory seemed yet undecided, and the numbers that fell on each side were nearly equal; but the morning discovered where the advantage lay. The English had only lost persons of small note; but the flower of the Scottish nobility had fallen in battle, and the king himself, after the most diligent inquiry, could nowhere be found. In searching the field, however, the English met with a dead body which resembled him, and was arrayed in a similar habit; and they put it in a leaden coffin and sent it to London. It proved, indeed, to be the king, and his body was interred. For this signal victory the earl of Surrey was restored to the title of duke of Norfolk, which had been forfeited by his father.

FLORENCE, after having been inhabited by the Umbrians, and after them by the Pelasgi, received a colony of Tyrhenians, who are said to have come from Lydia, under the conduct of one Tyrhenus. This people soon extended their conquests beyond the Apennines, and over the greatest part of Italy, and became famous for the arts of peace as well as of

war. Afterward they were confined in their boundaries by various other nations. In 396, B. C., Veii, an important city in this country, was taken by Camillus, the famous Roman general; and in 281, all Etruria was entirely subdued by the Romans. It underwent the revolutions of that empire and of Lombardy, till, being cruelly used by Frederick II., the inhabitants, upon his death, in 1250, asserted their independence, and, after a great variety of wars and internal revolutions, this territory was ceded to the duke of Lorraine in 1737, when it had been seized by the French. In 1801 it was ceded to the duke of Parma, of the royal family of Spain, with the title of king of Etruria, after the expulsion of the grand-duke by the French.

FLORIDA, a country of North America, discovered by Cabot in 1496. In 1520, Vasques sailed from St. Domingo, and visited Florida; in 1523, De Verrazini, a Florentine, and, in 1534, De Geray, a Spaniard, also made some progress in discovery. About the middle of the sixteenth century, many of the protestants of France, persecuted by the government, sought refuge in Florida only to experience greater evils. The greatest barbarities were inflicted on the unfortunate emigrants, many of them were hung on the trees, purporting that they were destroyed "not as Frenchmen, but as heretics." The French soon retaliated. Dominic de Gourgues collected a party of his countrymen, and being joined by the Indians, attacked the fort in which the Spaniards were collected; and, having carried it by storm, hung up the garrison on the very same trees that had sustained his countrymen, inscribing over them, that they were executed, "not as Spaniards, but as cut-throats and murderers." The Spaniards, however, persevering in their attempts to obtain a footing in Florida, established the town and fort of St. Augustine, in 1565: the capture of it was subsequently the object of many buccaneering expeditions, but without effect. By

A treaty of peace in 1763, Florida was ceded by Spain to Great Britain, in exchange for the island of Cuba. In 1781, Don Galvez completed the conquest of the whole of West Florida, which remained in possession of Spain until the treaty of peace of 1763, when Great Britain relinquished both provinces of Florida. A negotiation for the transfer of the whole province to the United States, was consummated by treaty in 1819; the treaty was ratified by Spain in October 1820, and finally by the United States in February, 1821; consequently, the province now forms one of the territories of the United States.

FLUSHING was invested by lord Chatham, on the 1st of August, 1697. A furious cannonade and bombardment commenced against the town on the 13th, from which, unhappily, the inhabitants, and not the garrison, were the greatest sufferers. On the 15th, the French commander, Monnet, requested a suspension of arms, and shortly afterwards signed a capitulation, according to which the garrison, amounting to 5,200 men, laid down their arms, and were removed to England as prisoners of war. On the 23d of December, Flushing was completely evacuated by the British army.

FOLARD (Charles), was born at Avignon in 1669. He entered as a cadet under the duke de Vendôme, who made him his aide-de-camp in 1702. He lost the use of his left hand at the battle of Cassano; notwithstanding which, he defended Modena against prince Eugene. He was again wounded at the battle of Blenheim, and made prisoner. On being exchanged, he went to Malta, which he defended against the Turks. Afterwards he entered into the service of Charles XII. of Sweden, and was present at the siege of Frederickshall. He then returned to France, and made his last campaign, under the duke of Berwick. He died at Avignon, in 1752.

FONTAINEBLEAU, celebrated in diplomatic history as the place where several treaties were concluded.

FONTENOY, celebrated for the obstinate battle of April 30, 1745, when the French, with Louis XV. at their head, defeated the allies, commanded by the duke of Cumberland.

FORLÌ, a town of Italy, the site of a battle between the French and Spaniards in 1521: it was entered, in 1797, by the French, after subduing the papal troops.

FORTESCUE (sir John,) a celebrated judge, was born in Devonshire. In 1441 he was made king's serjeant, and the year after chief-justice of the king's bench. In the first parliament of Edward IV. he was attainted of high-treason, for his loyalty to Henry VI., who gave him the great seal, whence he is commonly styled chancellor of England. In 1463, he went to Flanders, where he drew up his famous work "De Laudibus Legum Angliæ." After this he came back to England, when an attempt was made for the restoration of the Lancaster family, and on its failure in the battle of Tewkesbury, he was made prisoner, but allowed to retire to his seat at Ebrington in Gloucestershire, where he died, at the age of ninety.

FORT GEORGE, in Scotland, begun in 1746, and completed in 1761, and has since been frequently garrisoned with regiments raised among the Highlanders, whose attachment to prince Charles it was designated to check.

FORT WILLIAM, in Scotland, constructed in the time of Cromwell, and strengthened in the reign of king William. The adherents of the house of Stuart besieged it for five weeks in 1746; and, after effecting a breach, joined prince Charles on Drumcress moor.

FOSCHERINI, a noble Venetian and senator, was publicly executed as a traitor to his country, in 1623; but, after his death, his innocence was discovered. All that the senate could do on this melancholy occasion, was to punish severely the infamous informer against him, and to publish an edict vindicating the reputation of the deceased nobleman, and restoring his family to their former rank and honours.

FOTHERLINGAY CASTLE, in

HISTORY.

Northamptonshire, where Mary, queen of Scots, was put to death, in 1586.

FOUQUET (Charles Louis Augustus,) count of Belleisle, was born in 1684. He distinguished himself at the siege of Lisle; but afterwards fell into disgrace, and was sent to the Bastille. On his release, in 1733, he obtained the principal command in Flanders. In 1741 he was made marshal of France, and sent the year following to the diet of Frankfort, where he secured the election of Charles VII., who made him a prince of the empire. In 1743 he was taken prisoner, and sent to England, where he remained till the next year, when he was exchanged, and created a peer of France. In 1757 he was appointed prime-minister; and died in 1761.

FOX (Stephen,) a statesman, was born in Wiltshire, in 1627. At an early age he entered into the service of the earl of Northumberland, and next of lord Percy; after which, he became attached to the fortunes of the exiled king. At the restoration he was made clerk of the green cloth, paymaster of the forces, and knighted. He continued in public employment during that reign; but in the next he was dismissed. After the revolution he was restored, but lost the favour of William, by opposing the bill for a standing army. In the reign of queen Anne, however, he was replaced, and her successor also courted his service. He died in 1716.

FOX (Henry,) lord Holland, the youngest son, by the second marriage, of sir Stephen Fox, was born in 1705, and educated at Eton. He became a member of parliament in 1735; soon after which he was made surveyor-general of the board of works, and in 1743 a commissioner of the treasury. In 1746 he was appointed secretary-at-war, and a privy-counsellor; but, in 1756 he resigned the former situation in favour of Mr. Pitt; and the year following was made paymaster of the forces; his conduct in which office brought upon him much obloquy, and he was commonly called "the defaulter of unaccounted millions." He died in 1774.

166

FOX (Charles James,) second son of the preceding, was born January 13, 1748. He received his education at Eton, where he distinguished himself by his classical exercises. From that seminary he removed to Hertford-college, Oxford, after which he went on his travels; and in 1768 was returned to parliament for Midhurst. In 1770 he was appointed a commissioner of the admiralty, which place he resigned in 1772, and soon after obtained a place at the treasury board. Some differences arising between him and lord North, he was dismissed in 1774, and from that time took a leading part in the opposition. In 1780 he was elected for Westminster, which, with a slight interruption, he continued to represent till his death. When the Rockingham party came into power, Mr. Fox was appointed secretary-of-state for foreign affairs. On the dissolution of this administration, by the death of the chief, a coalition was formed between Mr. Fox and lord North, who, with their respective adherents, came again into office, till the introduction of the India bill occasioned their final dismissal in 1784. In 1788, Mr. Fox went abroad, but while in Italy he was recalled, in consequence of the king's illness. On this great occasion, he maintained that the prince of Wales had a right to assume the regency: which was opposed by Mr. Pitt, who was supported by parliament and the nation. The next remarkable event in the public life of Mr. Fox was, the part he took in regard to the French revolution. That change he hailed as a blessing, while Burke denounced it as a curse; and this difference of sentiment produced a schism in the party, which was never repaired. On the death of Mr. Pitt, in 1806, Mr. Fox came again into office, as secretary-of-state; but he died September 13, 1806, and his remains were interred in Westminster-abbey.

FRANCE. This kingdom was by the Romans called Transalpine Gaul, or Gaul beyond the Alps, to distinguish it from Cisalpine Gaul, on the Italian side of the Alps. Like other European nations, it

soon became a desirable object to the ambitious Romans; and, after a brave resistance, was annexed to their empire by the invincible arms of Julius Cæsar, about 48 years B. C. Gaul continued in the possession of the Romans till the downfall of that empire, in the fifth century, when it became a prey to the Goths, the Burgundians, and the Franks. The Franks and Burgundians, after establishing their power, and reducing the original natives to a state of slavery, parcelled out the lands among their principal leaders; and succeeding kings found it necessary to confirm their privileges, allowing them to exercise sovereign authority in their respective governments, until they, at length, assumed an independency, only acknowledging the king as their head. This gave rise to those numerous principalities that were formerly in France, and to the several parliaments; for every province became, in its policy and government, an epitome of the whole kingdom. The first Christian monarch of the Franks was Clovis, who began his reign anno 468, from which period the French history exhibits a series of great events. The first race of their kings, prior to Charlemagne, found a cruel enemy in the Saracens, who then overran Europe, and retaliated the barbarities of the Goths and Vandals upon their posterity. In the year 800, Charlemagne, king of France, the glory of those dark ages, became master of Germany, Spain, and part of Italy, and was crowned king of the Romans by the pope. He divided his empire by will among his sons, which proved fatal to his family and their posterity. Soon after this, the Normans, a fierce, warlike people, from Norway, Denmark, and other parts of Scandinavia, ravaged the kingdom of France, and, about the year 900, obliged the French to yield up Normandy and Bretagne to Rollo, their leader, who married the king's daughter, and was persuaded to profess himself a Christian. This laid the foundation of the Norman power in France; which afterwards gave a king to

England, in the person of William duke of Normandy, who subdued Harold, the last Saxon king, in the year 1066. In the reign of Philip I. in 1099, commenced the crusades; which were undertaken at the persuasion of Peter the Hermit, and of the patriarch of Jerusalem, with the approbation of pope Urban; for the purpose of rescuing the holy land from the infidels. In 1103, Philip was succeeded by his son, Louis le Gros, or Louis VI.; who engaged in a war with Henry I. king of England. Louis VII., surnamed the young, marched into Champagne at the head of a powerful army, in 1137, and having surprised the city of Vitry, met with no resistance, except in the parochial church, which he caused to be set on fire; 1,300 persons perished in the flames. Philip II. the successor of Louis, in 1180, and Richard I. of England, undertook a joint expedition to the Holy Land, in 1191; but the former returning to Europe in disgust, the latter was obliged to relinquish the enterprise. Philip II. was succeeded by his son, Louis VIII. in 1223, who was surnamed the Lion, from his great ardour in combat. He was poisoned after a short reign of three years, and was succeeded by his son Louis IX., commonly styled St. Louis, in 1226, who engaged in a new crusade against the infidels in Egypt and Palestine; in which himself and his nobility were taken prisoners. Being ransomed, he afterwards led an army against the infidels of Africa, where he died in 1270, before Tunis. His son and successor, Philip III., kept the field against the Moors, and saved the remains of the French army; and this procured him the surname of the Hardy. In the reign of Philip IV., surnamed the Fair, who succeeded in 1285, the supreme tribunals, called parliaments, were instituted; and the knights-templars, who were originally an order of monks that settled near the temple of Jerusalem, were suppressed and extirpated. The race of Capetian kings ended with Charles IV., who left only a daughter; and the states having solemnly decreed

that all females were incapable of succeeding to the crown, Philip de Valois, the next male heir, was raised to the throne, A.D. 1328. Edward III. of England having claimed the French crown, hostilities commenced, and the English gained the battle of Cressy in 1346, and Poitiers in 1356; but, about the end of the fourteenth century, the French recovered all the provinces which the English had conquered in France. A civil war raging, Henry V. king of England took advantage of these disorders, and invaded France in 1415. He made himself master of Harfleur, and gained the famous battle of Agincourt, in which the French lost an incredible number of men. In 1420, the succession to the French throne was secured to the king of England by treaty; in consequence of which, the infant, Henry VI., was crowned king of France at Paris. By degrees, Charles VII. recovered possession of his kingdom; in which he was greatly assisted by Joan of Arc, a pretended prophetess, who raised the siege of Orleans, and defeated the English; but being taken prisoner, she was barbarously burnt by them for alleged sorcery. On the death of Charles VIII., who was the last prince of the first line of the house of Valois, the duke of Orleans ascended the throne, under the title of Louis XII.; and was so humane, generous, and indulgent to his subjects, that he obtained the appellation of Father of his People. Francis I. the most distinguished of the kings of France succeeded. He ascended the throne in 1515, at the age of twenty-one, and died in 1547; in the same year as did our Henry VIII., and eleven years before his great rival, the emperor Charles V. He conquered the Milanese in 1525; but was taken prisoner during the siege of Pavia. In 1535, he possessed himself of Savoy, but was defeated. On the accession of Francis II. commenced those civil commotions which harassed France during thirty years. The king was instigated to endeavour to extirpate the protestants; who, by way of reproach, were

denominated Huguenots. The minority and reign of Charles IX. exhibited a series of treacheries, commotions, and assassinations; and France became a scene of tumult and bloodshed. In a massacre at Paris, which commenced on the eve of St. Bartholomew, in 1572, 70,000 protestants were butchered. Henry III. was a weak and debauched prince; and in him ended the line of Valois. On his death, the crown devolved to the house of Bourbon, in the person of Henry IV., king of Navarre, who was justly styled the Great; he was one of the best and most amiable of princes; but he fell by the hand of a desperate fanatic, in 1610. Under the minority, and in the reign of Louis XIII., France returned to its former state of disorder and wretchedness; and cardinal Richelieu, the prime-minister, introduced an absolute government into the kingdom. The reign of Louis XIV. was long and brilliant. The great Condé compelled the emperor Ferdinand III., and Christina, queen of Sweden, to conclude the peace of Westphalia. But the unbounded ambition of Louis rendered him odious or formidable to every prince in Europe. The united forces of England, Holland, and Austria, obliged him to conclude the peace of Ryswick, in 1697, and that of Utrecht in 1713. He reigned 73 years, from 1642 to 1715. William III. was the great enemy of Louis XIV. In 1702, he organized a new confederacy of the powers of Europe against him, but died before hostilities commenced. The English duke of Marlborough, who led the allied forces, gained, in 1704, the battle of Blenheim, and afterwards other battles. But, in 1715, this bloody and useless contest was terminated by the peace of Utrecht, though Louis succeeded in placing his grandson on the throne of Spain. At the age of five years, his great-grandson ascended the throne, under the title of Louis XV. He placed Charles Albert, duke of Bavaria, on the imperial throne. In conjunction with Germany, Russia, and Sweden, France in this reign twice contended against Prussia and Great Britain.

These wars were concluded in 1768, and in 1769. Louis XVI. assumed the crown of France in 1774, under the most unfortunate auspices, from a fatal accident which occasioned the death of a great number of persons, during a festival given at his marriage with Marie Antoinette of Austria. Louis found a court abandoned to the utmost extravagance: the fund of debt was, therefore, increased by the arrears of the loans, which were liquidated only by others. To obviate this difficulty, the king convoked an assembly of the notables, consisting of princes, deputies chosen from among the nobility, dignified clergy, the parliaments, and the *gays d'état*. It was proposed to establish a land-tax, proportioned to the property of those liable to pay, without any exception in favour of the nobility or clergy. This proposal being followed by a general refusal, the assembly of the notables was dissolved, and the minister thought he could make a more advantageous bargain with the parliament. But as the latter remonstrated and advanced the opinion, that the right of imposing new taxes belonged only to the states-general, the king convoked them in 1789. Necker's indiscreet measure, by which it was stipulated that the numbers of the *tiers-état* should be, at least, equal to that of the other two orders conjunctively, threw the preponderance into the scale of the former, who could not fail to find many adherents in the superior classes. As soon as the deputies of the third order had formed themselves into a national assembly, the other orders were led away by their impulsive force, and the equilibrium was entirely destroyed. All the wise and beneficent measures which the monarch proposed were rejected. Mirabeau, the creature of the duke of Orleans, who hoped by these commotions to establish himself on the throne of his relation, and who was one of the most depraved characters of which history can furnish an example, circulated a report, that the deputies were to be massacred, and the inhabitants of the capital exposed to

all the horrors of a famine. He then appeared at the tribune, and demanded that the troops by whom the safety of the assembly was menaced, should be enjoined, by a decree, to withdraw, and that another decree should be enacted, to declare that Necker merited the confidence of the nation. The busts of Necker and the duke of Orleans were carried in triumph by the people through the avenues of the palace-royal, and the streets of Paris. The storm thickened; and the destruction of the Bastille followed. On the 5th of October, 1789, the king, queen, and royal family, were forced from Versailles by the mob, and brought captive into the capital. However, the monarch disconcerted the plans of his enemies by a free acceptance of the new constitution, which abolished the feudal system, and the titles of nobility. The situation of Louis and his family became so insupportable, under all the harsh restraints which were imposed, that they contrived to escape from the vigilance of their implacable enemies; but the unfortunate monarch, being recognised at St. Menchault by Drouet, the postmaster, was stopped at Varennes, and constrained to return to Paris with his family, and to become once more a prisoner. While the king prepared himself to quit the throne and his existence, the jacobins caused a decree to be enacted, suppressing the chasseurs and grenadiers, of whom they were afraid, as well as the staff of the national guard. All the measures which they pursued till the 10th of August, 1792, had, for their sole aim, the overthrow of the monarchy. On that day, the Marseillaise, who had been invited to Paris, to form the advanced-guard in the attack on the palace of the Tuilleries, in conjunction with the national-guards, fired on the unfortunate Swiss, and put all of them to death, with but few exceptions. The king and his family sought refuge in the assembly; and it was decreed that they should be imprisoned in the Temple, thither they were instantly conducted.

HISTORY.

The national convention proceeded to business on the 1st of September, and, in the first sitting, abolished royalty, and proclaimed the republic. On the 6th, it was decided that the king should be brought to trial; and, on the 11th of September, he was conveyed to the bar, where, though he had received no previous intimation of the charges against him, he replied with clearness and precision, and with much composure and coolness, though it was evident that his implacable enemies were fully bent on his death. On the 14th of January, the convention decided that Louis Capet had been guilty of a conspiracy against the liberty of the nation, and made an attack on the general security of the state. The death of Louis was decided by a majority of five voices; and, on the 21st of January, 1793, he suffered by the axe of the guillotine. Against the French republic the emperor and the king of Prussia had already declared war; and, on the king's death, their example was followed by Great Britain and Holland, and speedily after by Spain and Russia. Whilst France was pressed on all sides by the different powers of Europe, this unfortunate country was a prey to all kinds of internal disorders, and to the most unbounded licentiousness. Robespierre and Danton obtained a decree, by which all the *sans-culottes* were to be armed with pikes and muskets at the expence of the rich, who were themselves to be disarmed as suspected persons. Marat, one of the principal agents in the revolution, was assassinated by Charlotte Corday, a young lady of an ancient and respectable family inhabiting Caen in Normandy. Towards the close of June, 1793, the new constitution was adopted, and great disturbances broke out at Lyons, Marseilles, and in La Vendée. Soon after the surrender of Valenciennes to the English, the committee of public safety was established to desolate France by the most horrid butcheries and persecutions. They apprehended all suspected persons, and tried them by revolutionary committees,

the powers of which were so unlimited, that they could readily seize on four-fifths of the population of France. One of their earliest victims was general Castine, whose murder was followed by that of Maria Antoinette, the wretched widow of Louis XVI. She had suffered a close captivity of three months in the prison of the Conciergerie, whence she was led before the revolutionary tribunal, and perished on the 16th of October, 1793. Her death was followed by the destruction of the Girondine party. The monster Orleans was brought up to Paris from Marseilles, and being tried and condemned, braved the insults of the multitude on his way to execution. Brittany and a great part of Normandy being filled with the royalists who had acquired the denomination of *chouans*, Carrier, one of the most atrocious monsters of the revolution, was sent to Nantz, where he spared neither age nor sex, but put to death the aged, the infirm, and even infants. The atrocities committed by the satellites of the convention in the city of Lyons, exceeded all that can be conceived; at the end of five months, nearly 6,000 persons had perished. In Paris the executions were now multiplied to such a degree, that eighty persons were frequently conveyed in the same vehicle to the place where they suffered. To cite the names of all the illustrious victims who fell, would far exceed our limits, and, at the same time, present too horrid a picture of human depravity. At length, Robespierre, Couthon, and St. Just, were brought to condign punishment. A form of government was afterwards settled by the Convention: and a council of ancients; a council of five hundred; and five rulers, called a directory, were appointed; but the other powers of Europe being still in league against France, and the new government being unfortunate in the field, the executive power was, in 1799, vested in three consuls, of whom the first was Napoleon Bonaparte. The consulate restored the energy of the government;

and Bonaparte having, in 1800, gained the victory of Marengo, forced Austria to conclude the treaty of Luneville in February, 1801; and concluded the treaty of Amiens with England in October of that year; thus restoring peace to all Europe. The British government refusing to surrender Malta, according to the treaty of Amiens, after some angry discussions, the English ambassador, in April, 1803, left Paris, and war was, unhappily, re-commenced. In 1804, the first-consul, Napoleon Bonaparte, was crowned emperor of France by the pope; and, in 1805, king of Italy, at Milan. He afterwards assumed the title of Mediator of Switzerland; and Protector of the Confederation of the Rhine; and made one of his brothers king of Holland, another king of Naples, another king of Spain, and another king of Westphalia. These manifestations of ambition excited, in succession, the jealousies and fears of all Europe. Austria and Russia commenced hostilities in 1805; but were overthrown at Austerlitz; Prussia in 1806, but she was overthrown at Jena; Russia, again, in the same year, but she was defeated at Friedland; Spain in 1807; Austria, again, in 1808, but she was overthrown at Wagram; Russia, again, in 1812; and, finally, Russia, Prussia, Sweden, Austria, England, &c. invaded France in 1813, when Napoleon abdicated, and the Bourbons were restored for a year. Napoleon then returned, but again abdicated the throne. Bonaparte was conveyed as a state-prisoner to the small island of St. Helena, in the South Atlantic ocean, where he died in 1821. The throne of the Bourbons has been re-established in the person of Louis XVIII., brother of Louis XVI., and France has been dismembered of the states and provinces annexed to her territories during the revolutionary wars.

FRANCE, Dynasty of.—

Pharamond	A. D. 429
Clodian	428

Merovingian Dynasty.

Merovius	449
Childeric	456
Clovis I.	468

First Division of the kingdom.

Childebert I. at Paris	} 511
Thierry, at Metz, &c.	
Clothaire I. at Soissons, who, in 559, became king of all France	
Clodomir, at Orleans	

Second Division.

Caribert, at Paris	} 561
Gontran, at Orleans, &c.	
Sigebert, in Austrasia	
Chilperic I. at Soissons	
Childebert II. in Austrasia	576
Clothaire II. at Soissons	584
Thieri II. at Orleans, &c.	596
Theodebert II. in Austrasia	598
Clothaire II. alone	614
Dagobert I.	} 628
Charibert, over part of Aquitaine	
Sigebert II. in Austrasia	} 638
Clovis II. in Burgundy and Neustria	
Chilideric II. in Austrasia	654
Clothaire III. in Burgundy, &c.	660
Chilideric II. alone	669
Dagobert II. in part of Austrasia	672
Thieri III.	673
Clovis III.	690
Childebert III. the Just	695
Dagobert III.	711
Chilperic II.	715
Clothaire IV.	717
Thieri IV.	721
Interregnum of six years, under Charles Martel	736
Chilideric III.	742

Carlovingian Dynasty.

Pepin the Short	751
Charlemagne	} 768
Carloman	
Charlemagne alone	772
Louis I. the Debonnaire	814
Charles I. the Bald	840
Louis II. the Stammerer	877
Louis III.	} 879
Carloman	
Charles II. the Fat	884
Eudes	888
Charles III. the Simple	898
Robert	922
Ralpho	923
Louis IV. Outremer	936
Lothaire	954
Louis V.	966

Capetian Dynasty.

Hugh Capet	987
Robert I. the Wise	996
Henry I.	1031

HISTORY

Philip I. the Amorous	A. D. 1060
Louis VI. the Fat	1108
Louis VII. the Young	1137
Philip II. Augustus	1180
Louis VIII. the Lion	1223
Louis IX. the Saint	1226
Philip III. the Hardy	1270
Philip IV. the Fair	1285
Louis X. Hutin	1314
John I.	1315
Philip V. the Long	1316
Charles IV. the Fair	1322
Philip VI. of Valois	1328
John II.	1350
Charles V. the Wise	1364
Charles VI. the Beloved	1380
Henry VI. of England, till 1436	1422
Charles VII. the Victorious	1461
Louis XI.	1483
Charles VIII.	1498
Louis XII. Father of his People	1515
Francis I.	1547
Henry II.	1559
Francis II.	1560
Charles IX.	1574
Henry III.	1589
Henry IV. the Great	1610
Louis XIII.	1643
Louis XIV.	1715
Louis XV.	1774
Louis XVI. beheaded	1793
Revolution	1789
Republic begins, Sept. 20	1792
Directory installed, Nov. 1	1793
Consuls installed, Nov. 25	1799
Napoleon Bonaparte crowned emperor of France by the pope	1804
Louis XVIII. restored	1814
FRANCHE COMPTE. This territory was conquered by Julius Cæsar, about 47 B. C. About 842 this province, which was part of the duchy of Burgundy Transjuran, came to be, in a manner, independent of the Franks. The whole duchy comprehended the provinces of Dauphiné and Provence (which were called Burgundy Cisjuran) as well as these countries. Upon the death of Charles the Good, in 968, they were erected into a kingdom, and continued to be independent till about 1034, when Rodolph, the last king of Burgundy, gave them to Conrad II. emperor of Germany. In 1101 they were given to Otto of Flanders, son to a sister	

of the emperor Conrad; and by the family of Burgundy they came, in 1477, together with other territories, to the house of Austria, in which the province remained, but under its own prince, till 1674, when it was seized by the French. FRANCIS (sir Philip,) was born in Ireland in 1740. He was educated at St. Paul's school; after which he obtained a place in the secretary-of-state's office. In 1760, he went in the suite of the English ambassador to Lisbon; but, in 1763, he was a clerk in the war-office; and, in 1773, he went out to India as a member of the council of Bengal, where he fought a duel with Mr. Hastings, and was wounded. He returned to England in 1781, and in the next parliament was elected member for Yarmouth, in the Isle of Wight. The impeachment of Mr. Hastings followed, and in that concern his old antagonist had a principal share, though he was not made one of the managers. He became, however, an active member of the opposition. When his friends came into power, he was made knight of the bath. He died December 22, 1818.

FRANCIS I. surnamed the Great, succeeded Louis XII. in 1515. He assumed the title of duke of Milan, in right of his great-great-grandmother Valentina of Milan, wife of Lewis duke of Orleans, slain at Paris in 1407; and, to make good his claim, he raised an army, and fought the battle of Marignan with the Swiss, which lasted two days, and gained the victory. Francis returned into Italy in 1525, and recovered Milan again; but being overthrown by the Imperialists at Pavia, was taken prisoner and carried into Spain, where he was kept till he had signed conditions to restore the kingdom of Naples, resign the country of Flanders and Burgundy, and given his two sons for performance of covenants. On his return to France, he made a league against Charles V. with the pope and the Venetians, and began a new war with various success. The Imperialists, under Bourbon and Fronsperg, took and plundered Rome, and the French, under Lautrec and de Foix, besieged

Naples, took the Imperial generals, and would have taken the city, had not a contagious disease swept away both the army and the general. Upon this, the peace of Cambray was concluded in 1529, and confirmed by the king's marriage with Eleanor of Austria, the emperor's sister. Francis, after this, made himself master of Savoy; in 1535, and 1536, raised the sieges of Peronne and Turin, and making a league with Solymán II. took Hesdin and St. Paul. Upon this, a truce for nine years was concluded at Nice in Provence, in 1538, which lasted not long: the emperor having promised Francis the investiture of the dukedom of Milan, upon his refusal to perform his promise, Francis entered Italy, Luxembourg, and Roussillon, and Francis of Bourbon gained the battle of Cerizoles. Francis died at Rambouillet, in the year 1547, after a reign of thirty-two years. Notwithstanding the magnificent living of this prince, his vast expences in war, buildings, &c. he left upwards of 4,000,000 crowns. In his memorable battle against the Swiss, he slept in a cannon-carriage, and drank dirty bloody water. He abolished the pragmatic sanction, at the solicitation of pope Leo X. in 1515. He founded the royal college at Paris, and was a great patron of learning in his kingdom.

FRANKLIN, (Benjamin.) was born at Boston, in 1706. He was intended for his father's business, which was that of a soap-boiler and tallow-chandler. In consequence of some disputes, Benjamin went away privately, in 1723, to Philadelphia, where he worked in the office of one Keimer a printer. His diligence being observed by sir William Keith, the governor, he persuaded him to go to England to purchase materials for a press on his own account. This was in 1724; and he continued in London working as a journeyman for about two years, when he returned to Philadelphia, where, in a short time, he entered into business in partnership with one Meredith, and about 1728, began a newspaper, in which he inserted many

of his moral essays. He also opened a shop in the bookselling trade, and married. At this time he formed a literary club, which laid the foundation of an extensive society and library. In 1736 he was appointed clerk to the assembly of Pennsylvania, which office he filled many years, till he was chosen a representative for Philadelphia. In 1737 he became postmaster of that city, and the year following he formed the first association to prevent fires, which was followed by an insurance company. When the war broke out between France and England, he proposed a plan of voluntary defence, which was carried into effect, and he was elected colonel of the Philadelphia regiment; but declined the honour. About this time, he applied to philosophical pursuits, and, in 1749, first started the idea of explaining the phenomena of thunder, and the aurora borealis, on electrical principles. In 1752, he verified what he had advanced, by his electrical kite, with which he drew lightning from the clouds. He was instrumental in establishing the Pennsylvanian hospital. In 1753, he was appointed postmaster for all the colonies: soon after which he brought forward a plan for the consolidation of the provinces by the adoption of a general government, which was rejected by the administration at home. After the defeat of Braddock in 1755, a bill for organizing a provincial militia having passed the assembly, Franklin was appointed the colonel; in which capacity he conducted himself with ability. In 1757 he was sent to England with a petition to the king and council, against the proprietaries, who refused to bear a share in the public expences. While thus employed, he published a history of the province of Pennsylvania, and a pamphlet on the importance of Canada, which had the effect of stimulating government to send an expedition for the conquest of that province. In 1762, Franklin was created doctor of laws at Oxford, and the same year he returned to America; but, in 1764, he was again deputed

HISTORY.

to England as the agent of his province, and in 1766 was examined before the House of Commons, relative to the stamp-act. He remained in Europe till 1775, when he returned home, and became a member of the congress, in which capacity he contributed more than any other man to the independence of the United States. For this purpose, he proposed an alliance with France, whither he was sent as ambassador, and continued at that court till the termination of hostilities, when he returned to his own country, where he was twice chosen president of the assembly of Philadelphia; but owing to his great age, he resigned this honour in 1788. He died April 17, 1790.

FRANKS, the, said by Bucherius to have been at first a mixed multitude of several ancient nations living beyond the Rhine, who, uniting against the Romans, in defence of their common liberty, styled themselves Franks, that word signifying, in their language, free. They were divided into several tribes, of whom the Ansuarii and Salii were the most considerable. They first attracted the notice of the Romans, between the years 234 and 254, when they broke into Gaul, and were repulsed by Aurelian, then tribune of the sixth legion. After several intermediate attacks, in 265, they passed through Gaul, and entered Spain, marking their way with rapine and desolation; which country they held for the space of twelve years. After various attacks and repulses, the Salian Franks were allowed, by Maximian, to settle in the neighbourhood of Treves and Cambray, about the year 287, a few years after which they made themselves masters of Batavia and part of Flanders, on the banks of the Scheldt. Here Constantius Chlorus, in 293, gave them a signal overthrow, and transplanted them, with their wives and children, into Gaul, where they were forced to cultivate the lands they had before laid waste, and to pay the usual taxes and tribute, as subjects of the empire. And the more to secure them, and to accustom them to live

in a state of civilization, Constantius took away their arms, nor were they allowed to have any in their new settlements. In this condition they remained quiet till the year 306, the first of Constantine's reign, when that prince, being engaged in Britain, they made new incursions upon the neighbouring territories.

FREDEGUNDA, the wife of Chilperic I. who persuaded him to oppress his subjects with exactions, and make war upon his brothers. He proved unsuccessful in the fourth war, and was besieged by Sigebert in Tournay; but Fredegund had Sigebert dispatched by two ruffians with poisoned daggers. Sometime after, she murdered Meroveus, the son of Chilperic; Audoveus, his brother; Prætextatus, bishop of Rouen, whom she caused to be assassinated in the church, as he was performing divine service; and lastly, her own husband, who had discovered her amours with one Landry of Tours, her favourite. Afterwards retiring to Paris, she continued her persecutions of Brunehaut and Childbert her son, and took the field and vanquished him, with the slaughter of 30,000 of his army; she then wasted Champagne, and re-took Paris. She died in the year 566.

FREDERIC AUGUSTUS, elector of Saxony, was chosen king of Poland in 1694. He declared war against Sweden, under flimsy pretences; which ended in his dethronement by Charles XII. The event of the battle of Pultowa, so disastrous to Charles, occasioned the reinstatement of Augustus on the throne of Poland in 1709. He died on the 1st of February, 1733, and was succeeded in the electorate by his son.

FRÉDÉRIC I., surnamed Barbarossa, succeeded Conrad III. his uncle, to the empire of Germany, in the year 1152. His first business was to pacify the affairs of Germany; which having accomplished, he marched into Italy, took and razed Tortona, obliged Verona to acknowledge him, and pay him a sum of money. He then besieged Milan, as-

pired to the dominion of Italy, and was crowned at Rome by Adrian IV. Being provoked by Adrian, he repassed into Italy, took Milan, and would have destroyed it, had not the citizens sued for pardon with their naked swords hanging about their necks. He afterwards renewed the war, once more took Milan, levelled it, and returned into Germany. But hearing that the Venetians, the pope, and the Milanais were in a confederacy against him, he re-entered Italy, took Rome, and established Galixtus instead of Alexander, who escaped in disguise to Venice. Otho, the emperor's son, pursued him, but was vanquished and taken prisoner by the Venetian fleet. Frederic thus reduced into straits, by the captivity of his son, and the successes of Saladin in Asia, went to Venice, and begged for absolution, prostrate at the feet of Alexander, who proudly set his foot upon his neck. He afterwards subdued the Lombards, passed into Asia, defeated Saladin in two combats, and took several cities from the Infidels.—He was drowned in the Cydnus, in the year 1190, after a reign of thirty-eight years.

FREDERIC II. king of Prussia, commonly called the Great, was the son of Frederic William I., and born Jan. 24, 1712. He had an indifferent education; but when he grew up, he showed so strong an inclination to literature and music, as to incur the displeasure of his father, who despised learning as beneath the dignity of a monarch. In 1730, the prince attempted to escape from Prussia, but the scheme being discovered, he was confined in the castle of Custring, and his companion Kat executed before his face. After a confinement of some months, Frederic obtained his pardon, and, in 1733, was married to the princess of Brunswick Wolfenbuttle. In 1740 he succeeded to the throne, and by taking advantage of the defenceless state of Maria Theresa, queen of Hungary, he added Silesia to his dominions. In 1744, he again took up arms against the empress-queen, and the treaty of

Dresden, which was concluded in 1745, left him in possession of an extended territory. In 1755, he entered into an alliance with England, which produced the seven years' war; Frederick exhibited all the powers of his character as a skilful general. In 1757 he had to contend with Russia, Austria, Saxony, Sweden, and France; notwithstanding which, and though his enemies made themselves masters of his capital, he extricated himself from his difficulties, and by the battle of Torgan repaired all his losses. In 1763, peace was restored. Frederic afterwards led a philosophic life, with the exception of his share in dismembering Poland in 1778. He died August 17, 1786; and was succeeded by his nephew.

FREDERICKSHALL, a town in Norway, besieged by Charles XII. of Sweden, who was killed by a musket-ball, while in the trenches, November 30, 1718.

FRETTEVAL, a town on the Loire, where the French were defeated by the English in 1194, who took the cartulary and records of the king of France, then in the neighbourhood.

FRIEDLAND, battle of, on the 14th June, 1807, between the Russians and French. The battle commenced at about half-past five o'clock in the evening of that day; marshal Ney and general Marchand advanced, and general Bissou's division supported their left. The Russians attempted to turn marshal Ney, with several regiments of cavalry, preceded by a numerous body of cossacks; but general La Tour Mauberge immediately formed his division of dragoons, and advancing to the right in full gallop, repelled their charge. In the mean while, general Victor ordered a battery of thirty pieces of artillery to be placed in the front of his centre; and general Summermont having caused it to be moved about 400 paces forward, the Russians sustained a dreadful loss from its fire. The different movements which they made, to effect a diversion, were useless; several columns of the Russian infantry attacked the

HISTORY.

right of marshal Ney's division, but were charged with the bayonet, and driven into the Alle, where several thousands perished in a watery grave. While marshal Ney advanced to the ravine, which surrounds the town of Friedland, the Russian imperial guards made an impetuous attack on his left. This corps was, for a moment, shaken: but general Dupont's division, which formed the right of the reserve, marched against the guards, and routed them with a dreadful carnage. The Russians then drew several reinforcements from their centre, and other corps of reserve, to defend Friedland; but, in spite of their efforts, the town was forced, and the streets covered with dead. At this moment, the centre of the French, commanded by marshal Lasnes, was attacked; but the Russians could make no impression. This sanguinary contest was chiefly decided by the bayonet; and the result of the day was the total defeat of the Russians. The carnage was dreadful: the Russians left from 15 to 18,000 dead on the field. In this disastrous battle and retreat, the Russians lost a great part of their artillery, and almost all their magazines and ammunition, on a line of 100 miles in extent. The battle of Friedland intimidated Alexander, and occasioned the famous treaty of Tilsit.

FROST, in Britain, lasted five months, 220; the Thames frozen nine weeks, 250; most of the rivers in Britain frozen six weeks, 291; a severe frost in Scotland fourteen weeks, 359; the Pontus sea was entirely frozen over for the space of twenty days, and the sea between Constantinople and Scutari, 401; so severe a frost, all over Britain, that the rivers were frozen up for above two months, 506; one so great, that the Danube was entirely frozen over, 558; the Thames frozen for six weeks, when booths were built on it, 695; one that continued from Oct. 1 to Feb. 26, 760; one in England, which lasted nine weeks, 827; carriages were used on the Adriatic sea, 859; the Mediterranean sea was frozen

over, and passable by carts, in 869; most of the rivers in England frozen for two months, 908; the Thames frozen thirteen weeks, 923; one that lasted 120 days, which began Dec. 23, 967; the Thames frozen five weeks, 996; a frost on Midsummer-day, 1035; the Thames frozen fourteen weeks, 1063; a frost in England from November to April, 1076; several bridges in England, being then of timber, broken down by a frost, 1114; a frost from Jan. 14, to March 23, 1205; one of fifteen weeks, 1207; the Mediterranean was frozen over, and the merchants passed with their merchandise in carts, 1234; the Cattegat, or sea between Norway and Denmark, was frozen, and that from Oslø, in Norway, they travelled on the ice to Jutland, in 1294; the sea between Norway and the promontory of Scagerrit frozen over, and from Sweden to Gothland, 1296; the Baltic was covered with ice fourteen weeks, between the Danish and Swedish islands, in 1306; the Baltic was passable for foot-passengers and horsemen, for six weeks, in 1323; the sea was frozen over, and passable from Stralsund to Denmark, in 1349; the Baltic was quite frozen over from Pomerania to Denmark, in 1402; the whole sea between Greenland and Gothland was frozen, and from Rostock to Gezoer, in 1406; the ice bore riding on from Lubeck to Prussia, and the Baltic was covered with ice from Mecklenburgh to Denmark, in 1423, 1426, and in 1430; the sea between Constantinople and Iskodar was passable on ice, in 1420; one in England from Nov. 24 to Feb. 10, 1434, when the Thames was frozen below-bridge to Gravesend; another of thirteen weeks, 1683; a great frost for three months, with heavy snows, from Dec. to March, 1709; again, in 1716, when a fair was held on the Thames; another began Dec. 24, 1730, and continued nine weeks, or 103 days; again, in 1742; in Russia, very severe, 1747; and in England, 1754; in Germany, 1760; in 1763, which lasted ninety-four days; in 1779, which lasted eighty-four days; in 1784, which lasted

eighty-nine days; in 1783, which lasted 113 days; in 1786, which lasted only from Nov. to Jan. 1789, when the Thames was crossed opposite the Custom-house, the Tower, Execution-dock, Putney, Brentford, &c.; it was general through Europe, particularly in Holland, Dec. 25, 1786; in Jan. 1814, when booths were erected on various parts of the Thames.

FUENTES D'ONORE, in Spain, the scene of an obstinate contest in the beginning of May, 1811, when the French, under Massena, made several attempts to advance, and preserve the fortress of Almeida; but, on the 7th, they were repulsed, with great slaughter, and their army retreated across the Agueda during the night.

FULVIA, a bold and ambitious woman, who married the tribune Clodius, and afterwards Curio, and after him M. Antony. She took a part in all the intrigues of her husband's triumvirate, and shewed herself cruel as well as revengeful. Antony divorced her to marry Cleopatra, upon which she attempted to avenge her wrongs, by

persuading Augustus to take up arms against her husband. When this scheme did not succeed, she raised a faction against Augustus, in which she engaged L. Antonius her brother-in-law; and when all her attempts proved fruitless, she retired into the east, where she soon after died, about, 40 B. C.

FULVIUS, a Roman senator, intimate with Augustus. He disclosed the emperor's secrets to his wife, who made them public to all the Roman matrons, for which he received so severe a reprimand from Augustus, that he and his wife hanged themselves in despair.

FULVIUS, (Ser. Nobilior,) a Roman consul, who went to Africa after the defeat of Regulus. After he had acquired much glory against the Carthaginians, he was shipwrecked, at his return, with 200 Roman ships.

FUTWA, in Hindostan, where the Afghan army, retreating from the emperor Akbar, in 1574, was overtaken, owing to the bridge breaking down, and the greater part drowned or put to the sword.

G.

GAEL, or tribe of Sciot, the name of a colony of Scythians, who, according to O'Connor's Chronicles, emigrated from Iber, or Iberia, 1491 B. C. under the brothers Calma and Ronard. After visiting Sagden, they passed to Spain, and called the country Gaelag, now Galicia. In 130 years, Eolus, their chief, went to Sydon, learnt the use of letters, and, on his return, sent nine others to receive instruction, who gave rise to an order of learned men, called Olam, who wrote and preserved the chronicles in a language called Beolrad-seine, the vulgar tongue being called Great Beolrad. In 1616, Scasostris having invaded Spain, and defeated the Gael of Iber, and the country being also afflicted with an uncommon drouth and famine, many of the people, rather than submit to the yoke of the Egyptians, sailed for Breotain, and to Fodhla, to which they gave the name of Eri, now Iré-

land. Here they introduced the worship of Baal and Re, or the sun and moon, and laid the foundation of the Irish nation, whose circumstantial history is recorded in the Chronicles of the Olam.

GABEL, or **GABLONA**, a small town of Bohemia. Some battles of Prussians were made prisoners here, after a smart engagement with the imperialists, in 1737. In 1778, prince Henry of Prussia entered Bohemia by this town; as did, in 1813, a part of the large Russian force, which marched, in the end of August, to the attack of Dresden.

GABII, a people bordering upon Rome, whose principal city was called Gabii, seated in Latium, now la Campagna di Roma, towards that part called Campo Gabio, which, when L. Tarquinius had by open force attempted, the artifices of his son Sextus delivered into the hands of the Romans.

HISTORY.

GÆTULIANS, AND GARAMAN-

TES. History has preserved little respecting these nations besides their names; and even the boundaries of Gætulia have never been satisfactorily defined by geographers. Their wandering hordes, which were sometimes united, and sometimes scattered, extended from Numidia and Mauritania, more or less, towards the deserts.

GAINSBOROUGH, a market-town in the county of Lincoln. The Danish fleet anchored in its harbour in the year 1610, and their celebrated king Sweyn, the terror of the English, was murdered here, as is supposed, when revelling with his companions. The town suffered much during the civil wars of Charles I. being frequently occupied by the contending armies. General Cavenish was defeated here and slain, in an engagement with Cromwell.

GALATZ, or **GALAEZ**, a town of European Turkey, in Moldavia. In 1789, an obstinate battle was fought in the neighbourhood of this town, between the Russians and Turks: the latter lost 8000 men in the engagement. The town was taken and set on fire, and many of the inhabitants lost their lives in the confusion.

GALBA, (Servius Sulpicius,) a Roman, who rose gradually to the greatest offices of the state, and exercised his power in the provinces with equity and unremitted diligence. He dedicated the greatest part of his time to solitary pursuits, chiefly to avoid the suspicions of Nero. His disapprobation of the emperor's oppressive command in the provinces, was the cause of new disturbances. Nero ordered him to be put to death, but he escaped from the hands of the executioner, and was publicly saluted emperor. When he was seated on the throne, he suffered himself to be governed by favourites, who exposed to sale the goods of the citizens to gratify their avarice. Exemptions were sold at a high price, and the crime of murder was blotted out, and impunity purchased with a large sum of money. Such irregularities in the emperor's ministers

greatly displeased the people; and when Galba refused to pay the soldiers the money which he had promised them when he was raised to the throne, they assassinated him in the seventy-third year of his age, and in the eighth of his reign, and proclaimed Otho emperor in his room, January 16th, A. D. 69. The virtues which had shone so bright in Galba, when a private man, totally disappeared when he ascended the throne; and he who showed himself the most impartial judge, forgot the duties of an emperor, and of a father of his people.

GALERIUS, (Maximinus,) was born in Dacia, near the city Sardica, and was a companion of Dioclesian. Upon his ill-success in a battle against Narses, king of the Persians; he was but coldly welcomed to Antioch by Dioclesian. This disgrace so provoked him, that gathering new forces, he vanquished his enemy, took the royal treasury, and drove him out of Mesopotamia, and five other provinces beyond the Tigris. In 304, after Dioclesian and Maximianus had abdicated, Galerius and Constantius Chlorus divided the empire between them. Being now sole emperor, he exercised his inveterate hatred against the Christians with more cruelty. In the mean time, he created Omsars, Flavius, Valerius Severus, and Maximinus, his sister's son, and pursued his designs upon Constantius's share; but Flavius being killed by Maxentius, he set up Licinius in his room. At length, despairing of success against Maxentius and Constantine, who succeeded Chlorus, he died, having reigned seven years after the abdication of his father-in-law.

GALICIA, the most western province of Spain. The Suevians passing into Spain in the fifth century, settled a kingdom in Galicia, in 469, under their king Hermeric, which lasted till about 563. Eubaric was dethroned by Andecus, who enjoyed his usurpation but a short time, being expelled by Leuvigildus, king of the Visigoths, who united Galicia to his own kingdom in 585. In 713, the Moors

subdued Galicia, with the rest of the kingdom of the Visigoths. In 750, Froila, king of Leon and Asturias, killed Jusaph king of the Saracens; and his successors making themselves masters of almost all Galicia, united it to their own dominions.

GALLI, a nation of Europe, naturally fierce and inclined to war. They were very superstitious, and in their sacrifices they often immolated human victims. In some places they had large statues made with twigs, which they filled with men, and reduced to ashes. They believed themselves descended from Pluto; and, from that circumstance, they always reckoned their time not by the days, as other nations, but by the nights. Their obsequies were splendid; and not only the most precious things, but even slaves and oxen, were burnt on the funeral pile. Children, among them, never appeared in the presence of their fathers, before they were able to bear arms in the defence of their country.

GALLIENUS, (Publ. Lucinius,) a son of the emperor Valerian. He reigned conjointly with his father for seven years, and ascended the throne as sole emperor, A. D. 260. In his youth he showed his activity and military character, in an expedition against the Germans and Sarmatæ; but when he came to the purple, he delivered himself up to pleasure and indolence. He enjoyed tranquillity at home, while his provinces abroad were torn by civil quarrels and seditions. He heard of the loss of a rich province, and of the execution of a malefactor, with the same indifference; and when he was apprised that Egypt had revolted, he only observed, that he could live without the produce of Egypt. In the midst of ridiculous diversions, he was alarmed by the revolt of two of his officers, who had assumed the imperial purple. This intelligence roused him from his lethargy; he marched against his antagonists, and put all the rebels to the sword, without showing the least favour either to rank, sex, or age. He

was assassinated at Milan, by some of his officers, in the fiftieth year of his age, A. D. 268.

GARCIA I. king of Navarre, succeeded his father Irigo Ximenes about 850. He reigned twenty years, and died in 870.—**GARCIA** II. succeeded Sancho in 905, and died in 925.—**GARCIA** III. succeeded Sancho Abarca, and died towards the beginning of the eleventh century.—**GARCIA** IV. first assisted, then quarrelled with his brother Ferdinand I. and lost both the battle and his life, in 1054.—**GARCIA** V. the son of Ramir, recovered the kingdom of Navarre, in 1134 made war with his neighbours, who endeavoured to dispossess him, and died of a fall from his horse, after a reign of twenty years.—**GARCIA**, king of Oviedo and Castile, son of Alphonso III. surnamed the great; he took up arms against his father, but lost the battle, and was taken prisoner. However, his brothers and his father-in-law released him, and compelled his father to resign the crown to him; which he held about three years, and died in 913.

GARDA, a lake of Austrian Italy. It was in the vicinity of this lake that Napoleon's greatest exploits, in the summer and autumn of 1796, took place: the Austrian army, under Wurmser, commencing offensive operations in the end of July, unfortunately marched in two parts, divided by the lake, which enabled their active enemy to overthrow the one that marched by the north, before it could be supported by the greater division advancing by the south.

GARDINER, (bishop of Winchester,) was a strenuous opponent of the reformation. He lost the favour of Henry VIII. and was deprived of his see; but was soon after re-instated by Mary. Gardiner opened the session of a new parliament, in which he delivered a speech calculated to aid the insidious views of the queen in the disposal of her crown and the succession, as soon as her intended marriage with Philip of Spain was finally completed. His hypocrisy was congenial to the cruel bigotry

of Mary and Philip; and it was determined to let loose the laws in their full rigour against the reformed religion, which soon filled England with scenes of horror. Gardiner was amply paid for all his hypocrisy and inhumanity by the terrors of an alarmed conscience.

GARDINER, (colonel James,) was born at Carriden, in Linlithgowshire, in 1688. His family was military; and it is remarkable, that his father, uncle, and elder brother, as well as himself, fell in battle. At the age of fourteen he had an ensign's commission in the Dutch service, after which he obtained rank in the English army, and was wounded at the battle of Ramillies. He rose to be lieutenant-colonel in 1730; and, in 1743, commanded a regiment of dragoons, with whom he marched against the troops of the Pretender, and was killed at the battle of Prestonpans, September 21, 1745. He was a man of steady courage, great loyalty, and ardent piety.

GASCA, (Peter de la), governor of Peru, was of a mild and insinuating behaviour; he possessed a love of justice, a greatness of soul, and a disinterested spirit. This mildness of character suited the then circumstances of the times. When he arrived at Mexico, he declared that he came not to exercise severities, but to heal the divisions by gentle measures. He drew the cities of Lima and Cuzco from the party of Pizarro; and by a series of wise regulations, and a judicious administration, he so far established internal peace, and settled the civil government of Peru on a safe and permanent basis. He returned to his private station in Spain regretted by all ranks.

GASCOIGNE, (sir William,) lord-chief-justice, remarkable for an act of impartiality in the administration of the law, when he ordered the prince of Wales, afterwards Henry V., into confinement for his indecent behaviour in striking him "on his tribunal. The spectators, with pleasure, saw the heir of the crown submit peaceably to this sentence, and

make reparation for his error by acknowledging it.

GEDALIAH, who was made ruler by Nebuchadnezzar over the people which he left in Judaea. He was treacherously murdered by Ishmael, in the hope that the scattered Jews repairing to Gedaliah would have adhered to him, and in time, have made him formidable to the Chaldeans.

GEMAPPE, or **JEMAPPES**, a village of the Netherlands, in Hainault, near the Scheldt, on the road from Mons to Valenciennes. It is remarkable for the victory gained by Dumourier over the Austrians, on the 6th of November, 1792, which was the first general action of the revolutionary war, and gave name to a department so long as the Netherlands were subject to France.

GEMBLOURS, or **GEMBLOUX**, a small town of the Netherlands. In 1578, the troops of Spain obtained a victory here, over the Belgic insurgents; in 1794, the Austrians, under Beauharnois, were worsted by the French; and it was not far from this that the sanguinary battle of Ligny took place between the French and Prussians, on the 16th of June, 1815.

GENAP, or **GENAPPE**, a small town of the Netherlands, on the Dyle. It was the scene of an action between some French and British cavalry, on the retreat of the former to Waterloo, on the 17th of June, 1815; and of much bloodshed in the night of the 18th, when the French were closely pursued by the Prussians.

GENEVA, a city of Switzerland, formerly belonging to the Allobroges, and afterwards made a Roman colony. After a variety of changes, it became subject to the dukes of Savoy, who claimed the exclusive sovereignty of the city and its district, and who from this period waged incessant wars against the town. But all their acts of hostility were rendered ineffectual by the bravery of the citizens, assisted by the forces of the Helvetic confederacy; and the last attempt of the house of Savoy against it was in

the year 1602, when Charles Emanuel, son of Philibert, duke of Savoy, treacherously but unsuccessfully attacked the town during a profound peace. In the year 1683, the reformed religion was introduced into Geneva by William Farrel, a native of Gap, in Dauphiné; but its final establishment was effected by the celebrated John Calvin, who was born at Noidon, and being driven from France as a protestant, arrived at Geneva in 1536. From the period of concluding the peace with the house of Savoy, the history of Geneva is little more than a narrative of contentions between the aristocratical and popular parties.

GÉNOA was conquered by the Goths, in the year 498; by the Lombards, in 638; and it was erected into a marquise by the emperor Charlemagne, in 774. The Franks having lost all authority in Italy, Genoa assumed the republican government in 959. From that time till 1339, the history of Genoa consists of an uninteresting detail of wars with the Venetians and Pisans. At the expiration of nearly 400 years, in 1339, the resentment of the people being excited against the nobles, they insisted, in a tumultuous manner, upon having an abbot of their own choosing, and they elected Simon Boccanera. Boccanera resigned the government, and was succeeded by John de Murta, and John de Valente, who carried on war with the Venetians, so unfortunately, that Genoa was filled with terror and confusion, and the council of the city conferred the government of the republic on John Vjaconti, in 1353. Three years after this, Boccanera was again chosen duke, but being poisoned, he was succeeded by Gabriel Adorno, Dominic Fulgosio, Nicholas Guarco, Leonardo de Montalto, Peter Fulgosio, Clement de Premonterio, Francis Justiniani, Anthony de Montalto, a second time duke, Nicholas Zoalio, and Antoniotto Adorno, also a second time duke.

In 1409, the French invaded the territories of the republic, of which they obtained the sovereignty; but some years after, the Ge-

noese revolted, and declared the marquis of Montserrat captain of the republic, and afterwards conferred the ducal dignity on George Adorno, who was succeeded by Thomas Fulgosio, and Jeramy Adorno. In 1421, the duke of Milan obtained the government; but the Genoese revolting in 1436, conferred the supremacy on Leonardo Guarco, who was succeeded by Raphael Adorno, Barnabas Adorno, Janus Fulgosio, and Ludovico Fulgosio. In the year 1456, the king of France accepted the sovereignty of the republic, which was enjoyed, either by him and his successors, or by the duke of Milan, for seventy years, at the expiration of which period, 1528, Doria gave liberty to Genoa, and expelled the French from the city. The name of Doria immediately echoed in every street. After assembling the nobility, he restored the government into their hands, and declared that he pretended to no greater share in it than became him as a nobleman. He re-established the ancient form of the republic, and received from his country all those testimonies of gratitude which a conduct so dignified and disinterested seemed to deserve. His countrymen admired his moderation and prudence, and honoured him with the title of the father of his country, and the restorer of public liberty. He died several years after this event, and is reckoned the greatest captain, and the most experienced and successful naval officer of his age. Ten years subsequent to this, Genoa was divided by the factions of the old and the new nobility. After that period she enjoyed peace and felicity for the space of forty-eight years, when she engaged in a war with Savoy and France, and was distressed by the conspiracies of Vachero and La Torré. During the war of the Spanish succession, the Genoese, in 1701, were exposed to the extortions of both the French and the imperialists. After seeing its territories ravaged and laid waste, Genoa was obliged to surrender to the marquis de Botta, in 1746, the Austrian general, who took possession of the city, and im-

HISTORY.

posed on the inhabitants a contribution of twenty-four millions. At length, the Genoese being irritated by the conduct of one of the German officers, rebelled, and drove the invaders from all their territories. During the invasion of Italy by the troops of France, the mass of the inhabitants of Genoa was evidently inclined to the French system; but the nobles still continued inveterate to democratical principles. Feuds having arisen among them, the popular party called in the assistance of the French, who established a commonwealth, in 1797, under the name of the Ligurian republic, on the principle of a perfect equality of rank and privileges among all the classes of society. In the year 1800, Genoa being the headquarters of the French commanded by Massena, was blockaded in form by the English fleet, under lord Keith, and by the army of general Melas by land. At length, after the French had defended the city with great bravery, from the 5th of April, the principal articles for the evacuation of Genoa were agreed on, June the 4th, between the French and the allies. Massena signed the treaty, for the fulfilment of which the contracting parties mutually gave hostages. The battle of Marengo soon changed the fate of Genoa, which was again surrendered to the French, and again the Ligurian republic was established. At the instance of the doge of Genoa, the Ligurian republic was annexed to the French empire by Napoleon, in 1805. In 1814, Genoa was in the occupation of the English troops, under lord W. Bentinck, who issued a proclamation implying the purpose of the allied powers to restore to that city its independence and ancient form of government. It was, however, determined by the plenipotentiaries at congress, that Genoa should be annexed to the territories of the king of Sardinia.

GENSERIC, king of the Vandals in Spain, defeated Hermeric, king of the Suevians; and crossed over into Africa, in the year 428, to the relief of count Boniface: with

him he afterwards quarrelled, and defeated. He vanquished Aspar, sent against him by Theodosius the younger, and compelled Valentinian to sue for peace; who being killed by Maximus, his widow, Eudoxia, called in Genseric into Italy, to revenge her husband's death. Upon this, Genseric took Rome, plundered it fourteen days together, and made the immense treasure of the temple of Jerusalem, brought thither by the emperor Titus, part of his rich booty. He also carried away Eudoxia and her two daughters, married the mother himself, and gave one of the daughters to his son Huneric, sending the other to Constantinople. After he had ravaged all the west, he invaded Illyrium, Peloponnesus, Greece, and the islands of the Archipelago; which last he destroyed entirely. The emperor Marcian, not finding himself strong enough to resist him, was forced to dissemble his resentment. His successor, Leon, in 468, raised an army of 100,000 foot, and sent a fleet, consisting of 1,000 ships, against him, under Basiliscus; who being corrupted by that barbarian, this gallant army perished. He died in 476.

GEORGE, a despot of Servia, in 1440, who was constrained to serve Bajazet I. against Tamerlane. Afterwards he took part sometimes with the Christians, sometimes with the Ottomans: at length, Amurath married his daughter. Mohammed II. took Novograde, the chief city of Servia, from him. He died of a wound received in his hand, when fighting against the Hungarians.

GEORGE I. elector of Hanover, duke of Brunswick-Lunenburgh, was born May 28, 1660, and was proclaimed king of England, August 1, 1714, and landed at Greenwich in the following month. At the commencement of his reign the whigs obtained an ascendancy, both in and out of parliament. In 1715 a rebellion broke out in Scotland in favour of the Pretender, and on the 13th of November, the earl of Mar was defeated at Sheriff-Muir, and Preston was reduced. The law was not put in force with all its terrors against the rebels.

Lords Derwentwater and Kenmuir were executed on Tower-hill: five others were hanged, drawn, and quartered at Tyburn; twenty-two were executed at Preston and Manchester; and about 1,000 were taken prisoners, and transported to North America. In 1716, the bill for septennial parliaments was brought into the House of Lords by the duke of Devonshire, and passed in both houses. In 1718 a quadruple alliance of England, Holland, France, and Germany, was formed against Spain; and the Spanish were defeated by sir George Byng on the coast of Sicily. In 1720 the celebrated South-sea scheme was set a-foot, which involved thousands of families in one common ruin. In 1721, bishop Atterbury was seized and conveyed to the Tower, and afterwards banished, on suspicion of treason; the duke of Norfolk, the earl of Orrery, and lords North and Grey were also arrested and imprisoned, and one individual was hanged at Tyburn. In 1723 the treaty of Hanover was signed, to counteract the first treaty of Vienna. The remainder of the reign of George I. presents little, except a tedious repetition of intricate and contradictory treaties. In 1727 the king visited his electoral dominions at Hanover; but being seized with a paralytic disorder on the road from Hanover to Holland, he was conveyed to Osnaburgh, June 11, 1727, where he died, in the thirteenth year of his reign.

GEORGE II. was born October 30, 1683, and was created prince of Wales, October 4, 1714. In 1704 he married Wilhelmina Caroline Dorothea, of Brandenburg-Anspach. He succeeded George I. June 11, 1727. In 1729 the peace of Seville was concluded with Spain. In 1739, the outrages of the Spanish Guarda-Costas, (for the suppression of the British contraband traffic with South America) produced war, and, on November 22, of the same year, Porto Bello was reduced by admiral Vernon. In 1742 sir Robert Walpole resigned all his employments, after being a minister twenty years. Lord Carteret became secretary of state for the foreign department. In 1742 the

British-Hanoverian army marched to the Netherlands in favour of Maria Theresa; and, in June, 1743, George II. defeated the French, in person, at Dettingen. (See *Dettingen*.) In 1745, marshal Saxe defeated the allies at Fontenoy. In July, the same year, Charles Edward, the young Pretender, landed in Scotland, and was joined by the Highlanders: September 21, he defeated sir John Cope, at the battle of Preston-pans, and penetrated into England as far as Derby. In 1746, general Hawley, commander of the king's forces, marched to Falkirk, when he was attacked on the 17th of January, and compelled to retire in confusion to Edinburgh; leaving part of the tents and artillery in the hands of the enemy. The duke of Cumberland now advanced at the head of 14,000 troops, and totally routed the Pretender's army, at Culloden, April 16, and Charles Edward escaped to France in a privateer. In the same year that this attempt failed, the English made an unsuccessful design on l'Orient, in France. In 1747, the French fleet experienced two signal defeats from admirals Anson and Warren, May 3, and by admiral Hawke, Oct. 14. In 1748, the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle was concluded, and the mutual restitution of conquests agreed upon. In 1754, some disputes arising with the French in Nova Scotia, and on the western frontier of British America, the French attacked the Virginian settlements on the Ohio; and, in 1755, general Braddock was defeated and slain near Fort Du Quesne. In 1756, Great Britain commenced a seven years' war, in alliance with Prussia, against France and Austria; and, in the same year, Minorca surrendered to the French. In 1760, the memorable siege of Quebec took place, which terminated with the surrender of that city, and soon after, the total cession of all Canada to the British. At this time the king was anxious to become a partner in the war which then raged on the continent. Supplies were liberally voted, till the British army in Germany amounted

HISTORY.

to 20,000 men. The English forces at sea were very numerous, and the courage and conduct of the English admirals surpassed all former times. Among their exploits should be mentioned the defeat of an equal number of French ships, on the coast of Bretagne, in Quiberon-bay, by admiral Hawke.—The prosperous state of the country was, in some measure, damped by the death of George II., which took place at Kensington, October 25, 1760, in the seventy-seventh year of his age, and thirty-third of his reign. He was himself of no shining abilities; and while he was permitted to guide and assist his German dominions, he intrusted the care of Britain to his ministers at home. His public character was marked with a predilection for his native country, and to that he sacrificed all other considerations. He was not only unlearned himself, but he despised learning in others; and though genius might have flourished in his reign, he neither promoted it by his influence nor example.

GEORGE III., eldest son of Frederick, prince of Wales, was born June 4, 1738; created prince of Wales, 1751; succeeded his grandfather, October 25, 1760; proclaimed the next day; married Charlotte Sophia, princess of Mecklenburgh-Strelitz, September 8, 1761, who was born May 19, 1744; and both were crowned September 22, 1761. His majesty was deranged in mind from October 1780, to March, 1789; on April 24, 1789, he went in procession to St. Paul's cathedral; recovered from a second attack, March 16, 1804; relapsed, 1816; and died in Windsor castle, January 29, 1820, in the eighty-second year of his age, and sixtieth of his reign; and was succeeded by George IV., his present majesty. Their issue are, George IV., born August 12, 1762; married April 8, 1795, Caroline Amelia Augusta, by whom he had issue Charlotte Caroline Augusta, born January 7, 1796; who died November 6, 1817. Frederick, duke of York, bishop of Osnaburg, born August 16, 1763. William Henry, born August 21, 1795; duke of Clarence, admiral in the royal

navy. Charlotte Augusta Matilda, born September 29, 1766; married May 18, 1797, to Frederick William, duke (afterwards king) of Wurtemberg, who died, in 1816. Edward, duke of Kent, born November 2, 1767, who died January 23, 1820. Augusta Sophia, born November 8, 1768. Elizabeth, born May 22, 1770. Ernest Augustus, duke of Cumberland, born June 8, 1771. Augustus Frederick, duke of Sussex, born January 27, 1773. Adolphus Frederick, duke of Cambridge, born February 24, 1774. Mary, born April 26, 1776. Sophia, born November 3, 1777. (For the principal events of this reign, see *Britain*.)

GEORGES, conspiracy of, was detected at Paris, the object of which was to subvert the consular government. The principal persons accused were general Pichegru, Georges, a Choan leader, and Lafolais, his confident. General Moreau was, also, in some way implicated. Georges, and some of his accomplices, were publicly executed. General Pichegru was strangled in prison; but whether by his own hand, or otherwise, is not certain.

GEORGIA, or IBERIA. We read of a king of Iberia named Artoces, in the time of Mithridates, king of Pontus; who, being defeated by Pompey, made peace upon honourable terms. After this time we know but little of this country, till it was conquered by the Seljuks, under Alp Arslan, in 1072. Jenghis Khan conquered it in 1222; Timur, in 1304; and Jehan Shah, the Turcoman of Adherbitzan, in 1452. In 1530 it surrendered to the Turks.

GEORGIA, one of the united states of North America. It was settled, in the year 1733, by 100 adventurers, under the conduct of general Oglethorpe. This small colony was afterwards increased by additional settlers from Scotland and Germany. The town of Savannah was built, and, in 1730, more than 600 people resided in this state. Owing to frequent wars with the natives, however, and other causes, the colony began to decrease; and, in 1741, it was notified to the English government that not one-sixth part of the

original settlers remained. It continued to struggle under many difficulties, until the peace of Paris, in 1763, after which a decided improvement took place, and it has ever since continued to flourish.

GERDIL (Hyacinth Sigismund,) a cardinal, was born at Samone, in Piedmont, in 1718. He was of the Barnabite order; and, in 1742, was chosen professor of philosophy at Macerata, from whence he removed to Turin, where he was appointed tutor to the prince-royal of Sardinia. In 1777 he was made a cardinal. He treated the concordat proposed by Bonaparte as an hypocritical farce; and told the Pope, that in signing it he had ruined religion. He died at Rome in 1802.

GERMANICUS CÆSAR, a son of Drusus and Antonia, the niece of Augustus. He was adopted by his uncle Tiberius, and raised to the most important offices of the state. When his grand-father Augustus died, he was employed in a war in Germany, and having obtained the affection of the soldiers, they unanimously saluted him emperor. He continued his wars in Germany, and defeated the celebrated Arminius, and was rewarded with a triumph at his return to Rome. Tiberius declared him emperor of the east, and sent him to appease the seditions of the Armenians. But the success of Germanicus in the east was soon looked upon with an envious eye by Tiberius, and his death was meditated. He was secretly poisoned at Daphne, near Antioch, by Piso, A. D. 19, in the thirty-fourth year of his age.

GERMAN-TOWN, a town of Pennsylvania, in Philadelphia. In October, 1777, was fought, near this town, a battle between the British and American troops, in which, though the latter retired, the former suffered severely.

GERMANY. The Germans were descended from the Celtes, from whom they received their religion, laws, and customs. Germany, like Gaul, was formerly divided into tribes, each of which had an independent government. This country was subjugated by the Romans. It was afterwards

conquered by Charlemagne, whom the Pope declared emperor, and who fixed his imperial residence in Germany. The posterity of Charlemagne inherited this country till the demise of Louis IV., when the Carlovingian line becoming extinct, the empire was wholly detached from France, and the imperial dignity rendered elective. On the death of Louis, the German grandees, whose consent had usually been asked at the elevation of their princes, even during the hereditary succession, assembled at Worms, and unanimously elected Conrad, duke of Franconia, to fill the vacant throne in 912. On the death of Conrad, in 919, the dukes of Bavaria, Franconia, and Suabia, with all the other states of Germany, assembled at Fritzlar, and bestowed the imperial dignity upon Henry, duke of Saxony. He concluded with Charles the Simple, the treaty called Pactum Bonnesse, which constitutes a famous epoch in history. He settled the succession on his son Otho, and expired soon after, in the sixtieth year of his age. Otho was elected emperor at Aix-la-Chapelle, in 966. Leo VIII. executed a decree, by which Otho was recognized emperor of the Romans and king of Italy, with all the rights and prerogatives to him and his successors which pope Adrian I. had granted to Charlemagne; so that, from this period, Otho may be justly styled emperor of the Romans. His brother Henry and his younger son Ludolphus revolted against him; but he conquered and pardoned them. He died in the city of Minleben, in Saxony, after an active reign of thirty-six years, having justly acquired the epithet of Great. Otho II., surnamed the sanguinary, succeeded his father in 973. His reign was spent in wars against the Slavonians, the Danes, the Poles, the Swedes, and the Hungarians, who, being situated on the frontiers of Germany, were ready to attack it on all occasions, and whose assaults were repressed and repulsed by Otho. Otho III. was only twelve years

HISTORY.

of age when he succeeded his father in 983. He died without issue, and was succeeded by Henry duke of Bavaria, who was solemnly elected and consecrated at Mentz, by the name of Henry II., in 1002. On the death of Henry, the Germanic princes and states invested with the supreme authority Conrade duke of Franconia, in 1024. Henry III., surnamed the Black, ascended the throne on the death of his father in 1040. Henry IV., surnamed the Great, was acknowledged emperor on the death of his father, in 1056. During the whole of his reign, he maintained a perpetual struggle with the popes, whom he wished to nominate. He died at Liege, and was interred in the cathedral. In 1107, Henry V., surnamed the Young, endeavoured to establish himself in the authority which he had so basely usurped, by conciliating the esteem of his ecclesiastics; but the natural haughtiness of his temper soon induced him to change his conduct, and a quarrel broke out between him and pope Paschal II., respecting the long-disputed question of investitures, which threatened very serious consequences, and occasioned a war between the emperor and the sovereign pontiff. However, at length, the long-contested affair of the investitures was finally settled, to the mutual satisfaction of all parties. He died at Utrecht, in the forty-fifth year of his age. In his place the electors chose Lotharius duke of Saxe-Supplémbourg, in 1125, who compelled two competitors to relinquish their pretensions, reconquered the Italian domains which had been wrested from the empire, and was crowned at Rome. He was succeeded by Conrade duke of Franconia, in 1139, under whose reign Guelphe of Bavaria, assisted by the king of Sicily, raised the standard of rebellion, and made some vigorous exertions for the recovery of the confiscated duchies; but after several indecisive engagements, Guelphe was closely besieged in the castle of Weinsburg, and compelled to surrender at

discretion. He was succeeded by his nephew Frederic I. in 1152. In the year 1183, the emperor engaged in a crusade against sultan Saladin, and marched at the head of a prodigious army into the dominions of the Greek emperor, whom he chastised for his perfidious conduct. He then crossed the Hellespont; and, after refreshing his troops for a few days at Laodicea, he fell upon the Turks and defeated them in several engagements. Whilst the Christians of Asia Minor expected to derive the most important advantages from his assistance, he was unfortunately drowned in the river Cydnus, in the sixty-ninth year of his age. Henry VI., surnamed Severe, who had been already elected king of the Romans, was acknowledged as lawful successor of the empire, in 1190. On the death of Tancred, king of Naples, he made himself master of the Two Sicilies. The emperor then returned into Germany, where he caused his infant son Frederic to be elected king of the Romans. However, the rigor with which Henry treated the Neapolitans, Calabrians, and Sicilians, occasioned a general insurrection, which obliged the emperor to conclude a peace with them on very disadvantageous terms. He died a few days afterwards. Philip, duke of Suabia, assumed the administration in 1197. However, pope Innocent III., a sworn enemy to the house of Suabia, caused Otho, duke of Saxony, to be elected king of the Romans. At the same time, the election of Frederic, son of the late emperor, was confirmed by another party, whilst Philip was solemnly crowned, that he might exercise the office of guardian with more authority. These different elections soon spread slaughter and consternation over the empire. At length, after many desperate but indecisive conflicts, Otho was obliged to seek refuge in England, and leave Philip undisputed master of the empire, in 1208. Whilst endeavouring to conciliate the affection of his subjects, and to procure an accommodation with the pope, he was assassinated by the count

palatine Otho, of Wittlesbach. Otho hastened to Halberstadt, where his election was renewed by the princes of Saxony, Misnia, and Thuringia; and he soon after conciliated the esteem of the opposite faction, by espousing Beatrice, daughter of the deceased regent. However, Frederic, duke of Suabia, and king of Sicily, who, in his infancy, had been proclaimed king of the Romans, was nominated to the imperial throne by the pope, and succeeded so effectually in conciliating the esteem of the Germans, that Otho was eventually compelled to resign all pretensions to the crown, and to seek a retreat in Brunswick, where he died, after a short and unfortunate reign. Frederic II. was crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1215, and, in the summer of 1220, made a journey into Italy, where he received the imperial diadem from Honorius III. He died in the fifty-fifth year of his age. Conrad being apprised of his father's death, assumed the imperial title in 1234. His life was soon terminated, either by sickness or the treachery of his enemies; and his son Conradin, being only three years of age, the Sicilian sceptre was usurped by Mainfroy, prince of Tarentum, and the government of the empire was vested in William, count of Holland, who had been elected king of the Romans, during the reign of Frederic II. He was succeeded by Richard, duke of Cornwall, in 1238. The princes, after avowing that they had chosen him merely on account of his riches, sent him a formal renunciation of their allegiance; and he was compelled to abandon the government, and retire into England, where he died. For fifteen years after the abdication of this prince, Germany groaned beneath all the accumulated evils which usually attend an inter regnum. At length the princes of the empire assembled in diet, at Frankfort, and elected Rodolphus to the imperial throne, in 1273. After swaying the imperial sceptre with ability for about eighteen years, he died, after a short illness, in the seventy-third

year of his age. In 1296, the electors declared for Adolphus of Nassau. He proved himself unworthy of his new dignity; and the states, by a solemn act, pronounced him incapable of wearing the diadem, and transferred their allegiance to the duke of Austria. Adolphus fell in battle, by the hands of Albert I., who was elected, and invested with the diadem at Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1298. Albert's conduct towards the Swiss was extremely rigorous and severe, and induced the three cantons of Uri, Switz, and Unterwalden, to shake off the imperial yoke; and the other cantons soon engaged in a confederacy which laid the foundation of the Helvetic republic. The emperor was assassinated by order of his nephew John, who feared that he meant to appropriate his patrimony to the benefit of his own children. Though Philip the Fair, king of France, offered himself a candidate for the vacant throne, the princes unanimously chose Henry of Luxemburg, in 1308. He marched at the head of an army into Italy; but, finding it impossible to reduce his enemies at Rome, he ravaged the territory of Perugia with fire and sword, and laid siege to Florence. In the spring he engaged in an expedition against Robert, king of Naples; but, on his arrival at Buonconvento, he died suddenly. After some contests with Frederic of Austria, Lewis of Bavaria was recognised as lawful possessor of the throne, in 1315. In the mean time, pope John XXII. had availed himself of the recent quarrels to gain possession of several domains. Lewis therefore undertook an expedition into Italy, caused himself to be crowned at Rome by the bishops of Venice and Aleria, degraded and condemned John to death, as guilty of heresy and treason, and elevated to the papacy Pietro de Rainaudi by the name of Nicholas V. However, John excommunicated the anti-pope, and, by his intrigues, compelled the emperor to withdraw from Italy. Clement VI. supported the revolt of several German princes who deposed Lewis,

HISTORY.

and elected Charles of Luxemburg, king of the Romans. Whilst the emperor was making the requisite preparations for revenging his wrongs, he was killed by a fall from his horse, in the thirty-second year of his reign. Charles IV. of Luxemburg received the imperial diadem at Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1347. After Charles had spent about seven years in arranging the affairs of the empire, he crossed the Alps, and was crowned king of Lombardy at Milan; but the Italians treated him with great indifference, and even with marked contempt. In 1357, he presented to the diet of Nuremberg, and caused them to accept, the famous Golden Bull, which regulated the number, rank, and functions of the electors, and the form which has since been observed in the choosing of an emperor. He died in the thirty-third year of his reign. Winceslaus succeeded his father in the throne, in 1378. He converted the imperial provinces into money, which gave such umbrage to the electors, that they solemnly deposed him, and elected Frederick duke of Brunswick to the supreme dignity. Frederick of Brunswick being assassinated soon after by a secret enemy, in 1400 the electors conferred the sovereignty upon Robert count Palatine. After the death of Robert, Josse marquis of Moravia was regularly elected at Frankfort, in 1411; but his promotion was vigorously opposed by Sigismund, brother to Winceslaus; and death put a period to his authority, after he had worn the diadem about three months. On Sigismund ascending the imperial throne, he concluded a treaty with the king of Poland, against the Tentonic order, and concurred with pope John XXIII., for convoking a council at Constance. On the death of his brother Winceslaus, Sigismund was invested with the Bohemian diadem. After a long and sanguinary war, the emperor reduced the heretics to obedience; and those who escaped the avenging sword, were successfully employed against the Turks, Sigis-

mund settled the succession in favour of his son-in-law, Albert duke of Austria. Albert II., surnamed the Grave and the Magnanimous, was honoured, in 1335, with the crowns of Hungary, Bohemia, and Germany. However, he died in a short time, and, in 1440, the electors placed upon the imperial throne Frederic III., duke of Austria. He had the address to gain over the Flemings, and persuade them to bestow the hand of their duchess on his son Maximilian, whom he afterwards procured to be elected king of the Romans. From this period he reposed upon Maximilian the chief weight of the government, and died at an advanced age. Maximilian was invested with the supreme dignity in 1493. He appointed his son Philip governor of the Low Countries, and also procured for him the crown of Spain, by the marriage which he effected between him and the infant Johanna. Maximilian entertained the singular project of procuring himself to be elected pope; but though his endeavours were serious, they were unsuccessful. He exerted all his abilities to obtain, for his grandson Charles, who had taken possession of the Spanish diadem, an admission into the electoral college as archduke of Austria, and the title of king of the Romans; but not being able to procure this gratification, disappointment preyed upon his spirits, and it brought him to the grave, in the sixtieth year of his age. Charles V. presented himself as a candidate for the imperial throne, in 1550. (See *Charles V.*) After a brilliant and active reign, Charles, finding his health rapidly decline, determined to relinquish the burdens of government; and, having assembled the states of the Low Countries at Brussels, he explained the reasons of his resignation, recapitulated the most important actions of his life, and transferred the sovereign authority to Philip, reserving nothing to himself but a pension of 100,000 crowns, to be deducted from the revenue of Spain. He then made a formal

resignation of the empire to his brother Ferdinand, and immediately set out for Spain with a chosen retinue. Previously to his arrival in Spain, a small building had been annexed to the monastery of St. Just, whither he retired, with only twelve domestics, and where, after a peaceful solitude of about two years, he resigned his breath, in the fifty-ninth year of his age. In ascending the throne, in 1555, Ferdinand received all the German territories of the house of Austria, from the liberality of his brother Charles V. — Maximilian II., the son of Ferdinand, who had already received the crown of Bohemia, and had been elected king of the Romans, ascended the imperial throne in 1564. On the demise of this illustrious prince, his eldest son, who had been elected king of the Romans, and acknowledged as his successor to the crown of Hungary and Bohemia, succeeded to the empire by the name of Rodolphus II. in 1576. After ceding Bohemia to his brother Matthias, the emperor became melancholy and distrustful, and secluded himself in the retirement of his palace, till he was seized with a disorder which put a period to his life, in the fifty-ninth year of his age. Matthias having received his brother's diadem from the electors in 1612, fixed his residence at Vienna, and in a great measure re-established the tranquillity of the empire. But, by procuring the crowns of Hungary and Bohemia for his cousin Ferdinand, he occasioned much disturbance and effusion of blood. On the demise of Matthias, Ferdinand was declared emperor in 1619; but the Bohemians were so highly exasperated at this election, that they immediately renounced all allegiance to him, and bestowed the diadem upon Frederick, the elector Palatine, who prevailed on the kings of Sweden and Denmark to espouse his cause. However, Ferdinand was at first so completely triumphant, that he no longer dissembled his design of suppressing the Protestant religion, extinguishing the liberties of the empire, and rendering the imperial diadem hereditary in the house of

Austria. Germany began to tremble with the apprehension of slavish subjection; but Gustavus, king of Sweden, rushing with impetuosity into the empire, defeated the imperialists under count Tilly, in the fields of Leipzig, and threatened to besiege Ferdinand in his capital, or chase him from his dominions. At this crisis, the ill-fated Gustavus, pursuing a new victory on the plain of Lutzen, was slain by a party of cuirassiers. Ferdinand persisting in his design of acquiring absolute power, Germany was doomed to remain under her distracting calamities; towns were reduced and retaken; battles were fought with various success; and the country was deluged with blood. On the death of Ferdinand II., his son Ferdinand III. ascended the imperial throne, in 1637, at a critical and distressing period; and, though he succeeded in tranquillizing the interior of Germany, the flames of war continued to rage with unabated fury on the frontiers, and the calamities of the people were prolonged by the abilities of the generals employed. The hostile sovereigns now carried on the war with vigour, whilst the ill-fated inhabitants of Germany still groaned beneath the yoke of oppression. France, Sweden, Denmark, England, and some of the German states, were confederated against Spain and the house of Austria. At length a treaty was concluded, since known by the peace of Westphalia. Ferdinand III. died at Vienna, in the forty-ninth year of his age, and the twentieth of his reign. Leopold Ignatius, king of Hungary and Bohemia, was declared duly elected to the imperial throne in 1657. Scarcely were the troubles of the north composed, before the emperor was threatened with an invasion from the Turks, who made an irruption into Transylvania, and afterwards avowed their intention of marching to Vienna. Leopold sent against them Louis encell, who attacked them in a general battle near St. Godard, which terminated in the utter defeat of the Ottoman forces. The emperor now found himself pressed on one hand by Louis XIV.

and on the other by the revolted Hungarians. The Turks, not satisfied with inspiring distant terror, advanced even to the walls of Vienna, to which they laid siege; whilst the emperor and his courtiers took refuge in Linz, and the citizens were overwhelmed with consternation. In this exigence, John Sobieski, king of Poland, being called on for aid, and acting in concert with Charles, duke of Lorraine, compelled the barbarians to raise the siege of that city, and defeated them with prodigious slaughter. Notwithstanding his embarrassments, Leopold ultimately succeeded in rendering the crown of Hungary hereditary in his family, an object which had been long desired. After choosing the archduke Joseph as their sovereign, the Hungarians for ever renounced the right of election, and insured to the house of Austria that of hereditary succession. The same prince was also elected king of the Romans, by a diet convoked at Augsburg. Leopold died in the forty-seventh year of his reign. Upon the accession of Joseph to the imperial throne in 1705, it was generally expected that a termination would be put to the war, which had already desolated Germany, and impoverished a considerable part of Europe; but Louis XIV. was not yet sufficiently humbled to propose such conditions to the emperor as he could with honour accept. Joseph put the electors of Cologne and Bavaria to the ban of the empire; but being ill-served by prince Lewis of Baden, the general of the empire, the French partly recovered their affairs, notwithstanding their repeated defeats. Though the duke of Marlborough obtained very splendid victories, he had not all the success he expected or deserved. Joseph was suspected of a design to subvert the liberties of Germany; and he expected that England should take a principal part in a war which was carried on chiefly for his benefit. Joseph governed the empire with more despotism than any of his predecessors, and the house of Bavaria was a monu-

ment of the inflexibility of his temper. The archduke Charles was, therefore, elevated to the imperial throne by the name of Charles VI. in 1711. As Anne, queen of England, had acquainted her parliament with her pacific intentions, and Holland was on the point of concluding a separate treaty, the new emperor found himself under the necessity of sustaining the entire weight of a war with France and Spain, or of accepting the terms offered by Louis. At length, however, negotiations were commenced at Utrecht, where a treaty was signed, and a general peace re-established, of which Europe tasted the sweets after a long war that had harassed Germany during the reign of the last four emperors. Charles died in the twenty-ninth year of his reign. He was the author of the famous Pragmatic Sanction, which secured all the possessions of the house of Austria to his daughter the archduchess Maria Theresa, and which was guaranteed by the states of the empire, and by all the great powers of Europe. The death of Charles, in 1740, was followed by very serious commotions; and the Pragmatic Sanction must have been overthrown, had it not been for the firmness and resolution of his Britannic majesty. The young king of Prussia marched with a powerful army into Silesia, which he asserted had been unjustly wrested from his family; and France, Spain, and the elector of Bavaria, set up several claims, which were altogether incompatible with the regulation made by Charles. The imperial throne was next filled by the elector of Bavaria, who assumed the name of Charles VII. in 1742. The French now took possession of the capital of Bohemia; and the queen of Hungary was compelled formally to renounce the duchy of Silesia to the king of Prussia. On the death of Charles VII. in 1745, the duke of Lorraine, consort to her Hungarian majesty, was elected to the imperial throne. His Britannic majesty interfered, and negotiated an accommodation; and, by the subsequent treaty of Aix-la-Cha-

pelle, the duchy of Silesia was guaranteed to Prussia. However, as the empress of Russia coincided in sentiment with the king of Poland and the empress-queen, and as France engaged to support their designs, a fresh war was excited in the empire against the king of Prussia, who was encouraged by the promise of an annual subsidy from the British parliament. At length, after a sanguinary conflict of seven years' continuance, the empress queen consented to an armistice; and the subsequent treaty of Hubertsburg again secured to his Prussian majesty the possession of Silesia. Two years after the conclusion of this treaty, the emperor Francis died, in the twenty-first year of his reign. He was succeeded in the empire by his son Joseph II.; in 1764, his imperial majesty joined with Russia and Prussia in the base dismemberment of Poland: but this did not prevent hostilities from being commenced with Austria and Prussia, on account of the succession to the electorate of Bavaria. Maria Theresa, empress of Germany, queen of Hungary and Bohemia, and archduchess of Austria, died in 1780. In the course of her life she experienced many vicissitudes of fortune; but her unflinching courage enabled her to surmount all difficulties, and to elevate the house of Austria to a degree of power which it had not enjoyed since the reign of Charles the Fifth. She left her extensive possessions in the hands of a son, who promulgated a decree in favour of the liberty of the press, which had been hitherto much circumscribed in the Austrian dominions. He demanded of the Dutch the uninterrupted navigation of the Scheldt, but in this he failed. In 1783, Joseph II. published an edict for the total abolition of villainage and slavery in Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia; and similar measures were taken soon after for the relief of the peasants in Austrian Poland. He also abolished the use of torture in his hereditary dominions, and died in the twenty-fifth year of his reign. He was succeeded by his

brother, Peter Leopold, grand-duke of Tuscany, in 1790. The French revolution now attracting the attention of all the European powers, a conference was held at Pillnitz, between the emperor, the king of Prussia, and the elector of Saxony; but, instead of advising an immediate attack upon France, Leopold acted with his accustomed moderation, and merely wished to oppose an effectual security against the tremendous hurricane which threatened Europe. However, he was afterward persuaded to commence hostilities; but his designs were soon terminated by his death, in the second year of his reign. Francis succeeded his father in the kingdom of Hungary and Bohemia, and was raised to the imperial throne in 1792. At the instigation of the king of Prussia, he resolved to contribute his utmost endeavours for the restoration of monarchy in France; but the attempts of the allies were so unfortunate in the first campaign that Brussels, Charleroi, Antwerp, Mecklin, Louvain, Ostend, Namur, and all the Austrian Netherlands, except Luxemburg, yielded to the enthusiastic forces of the French republic. In the second, they were more successful. The campaign of 1794 proved extremely unfortunate to the confederates. The fourth campaign was more successful to the Austrians, whose advantages were attributed by the French directory to the unskilful management of their own generals. In 1796, the French resolved to divert the emperor's attention from the Netherlands to his Italian dominions; and Bonaparte overran Italy, and compelled the pope, the king of Naples, and other princes, to conclude such treaties as he thought proper to dictate. At length, the court of Vienna, perceiving that all expectations of an effectual opposition to the French were totally confounded, concluded, in 1797, the treaty of Campo-Formio, by which the emperor ceded to France the whole of the Netherlands, and all his former territory in Italy, but received in return the city of Venice, Istria, Dalmatia, and the Venetian

HISTORY.

islands in the Adriatic. However, the war was renewed with great vigour on both sides, and, in 1796, the Austrians compelled the French to evacuate nearly the whole of Italy. The brilliant successes of the archduke Charles in Germany, also, re-animated the court of Vienna, and contributed to break off the conferences at Rastadt. In the mean time, Bonaparte having returned from Egypt, and procured himself to be appointed first consul of the French republic, the war with Austria was destined to take a new turn. That general, at the head of an army of reserve, marched towards Italy; and having collected his artillery at the village of St. Pierre, transported it with inconceivable labour across the Alps, and advanced to Milan. After reducing Pavia, and defeating the Austrians in the battle of Montebello, the French marched to the plain of Marengo. Both the French and the Imperialists exhibited extraordinary skill and resolution. At length, the French consul, availing himself of an error which general Melas had committed, compelled his enemies to retreat. In Germany, the French had opened the campaign with similar success; and General Moreau, after defeating the Imperialists in several engagements, formed a junction with the army of Italy, and obliged the Austrians to conclude an armistice. Soon after, preliminaries of peace were signed at Paris by count St. Julien; but as Bonaparte refused to negotiate with England, the emperor would not ratify them. Hostilities were therefore recommenced, and the Austrians were defeated by Moreau in the decisive battle of Hohenlinden. This was followed by the treaty of Luneville, in 1801, by which the emperor ceded to France the Belgic provinces, and the whole of the country on the left side of the Rhine. In 1805, the court of Vienna entered into an alliance with Russia, the object of which appears to have been to rescue the states of Europe from French predominance and oppression. The emperor, therefore, made prepa-

rations for war. Without waiting for the arrival of the Russian troops, the Austrians marched towards the banks of the Danube, where hostilities commenced, and the French, under Bonaparte, after a severe contest, succeeded in defeating the Imperialists with great loss. The Austrians retreated, and Bonaparte advanced to Munich. From this time partial engagements took place, in which the Austrians, though they fought with their accustomed bravery, were uniformly defeated. The whole Austrian army in Suabia now concentrated itself in and near Ulm; and every thing seemed to indicate the approach of a general and decisive battle. However, to the astonishment and concern of all Europe, general Mack, who was in Ulm with 33,000 men, without striking a blow, agreed to the terms of capitulation offered by Bonaparte, evacuated that important fortress, and surrendered himself and his troops prisoners of war! Bonaparte now hastened forward to St. Polten, within a few leagues of Vienna, whither a deputation repaired from the emperor of Austria, who offered to deliver up the capital to Bonaparte. Though the emperor could not but be sensibly affected with the disastrous state of his affairs, his mind did not sink under the weight of calamity. He set out for Olmütz on the 7th of November, and was informed on his road thither, that Bonaparte was willing to grant an armistice, on condition that the Tyrol, Venice, and the strong fortresses of Germany, were put into his possession. Francis did not yet despair of the goodness of his cause, nor of the means which he possessed to render it finally victorious. He published a noble manifesto to his people, declaring his resolution not to make a separate peace, but relying on the pledged assistance of Russia and Prussia, not to submit to France, except in an extremity in which it would be impossible to resist. In the mean time the imperial army in Italy, after being defeated by the French in two or three engagements, pre-

pared to evacuate that country, and, notwithstanding the force under general Massena, the archduke Charles prosecuted his retreat unmolested, or at least feebly opposed. On the 2d of December was fought a general battle, called the battle of Austerlitz, in the plains of Moravia, between Brunn and Olmutz. (See *Austerlitz*.)

Immediately after this engagement, the emperor Francis concluded an armistice with Bonaparte, which was speedily followed by the treaty of Presburg. By that treaty, the emperor ceded the city of Venice, the Langores, the possessions of Terra Firma, Venetian Istria, Dalmatia, the mouths of the Cattaro, and the Venetian Isles in the Adriatic, besides other territories and domains in Bavaria and Wurtemberg. Such was the unfortunate issue of the attempt made by the allied powers, to limit the dominions, and shake the authority, of Napoleon. Instead of withdrawing his armies from Germany, in conformity with the treaty of Presburg, Bonaparte continued to keep his troops in that country, and imposed on the defenceless cities and states, fines, loans, and contributions, at pleasure. The effects produced by the innovations were now unfeelingly held forth as strong and unanswerable arguments in support of what he at length completed—its total annihilation. By the confederation of the Rhine, signed at Paris on the 2d of August, 1806, he united to France, Bavaria, Wurtemberg, Baden, Berg, Darmstadt, Nassau, Hohenzollern, and others, which had hitherto formed a part of the Germanic union. This was followed, on the 6th of August, by the resignation of the high office of emperor of Germany, by Francis, who became merely emperor of Austria, and who publicly absolved all the German provinces and states from their reciprocal duties towards the German empire. In 1809, Francis, smarting under sacrifices already made, and dreading farther encroachments, resolved to try again the chance of war, at a time when a large proportion of the military force of France

was employed in completing the subjugation of Spain. War was declared, in proclamations from the archduke Charles and the emperor Francis; and these were followed by a manifesto, stating the provocations and causes of alarm given by France to Austria. The Austrians were defeated in two battles, one at Abensberg by Napoleon in person, the other at Eckmühl; and after these defeats, the French emperor proceeded to Vienna, which surrendered to him; but in the battle of Aspern, which followed soon after, Napoleon experienced the severest check which his career had yet received. However, after the decisive battle of Wagram, an armistice was concluded. This was followed by a peace between Austria and France, by which the emperor Francis ceded to the French emperor all those parts of his territory which touched upon the Adriatic. Cessions were also required from him of portions of territory to the Rhenish confederacy, the king of Saxony, and the emperor of Russia. By a secret article in this treaty, the emperor Francis agreed to give his daughter, the archduchess Louisa Maria, to Bonaparte in marriage; and this marriage was solemnized a few months after. Thus the humiliation of Austria appeared to be complete! After the retreat of Bonaparte from Moscow, and the disastrous consequences of the campaign in Russia, the Austrian minister at the congress of Prague delivered to the French minister a declaration of war on the part of his court against France. This declaration was followed by a treaty of amity and defensive alliance between the courts of Vienna and Petersburg. Russia and Prussia had previously formed treaties with Great Britain. Sweden also had joined the allies; and the accession of Bavaria to the common cause proved the general concurrence of Germany to throw off the yoke of Napoleon. The battle of Leipzig decided the fate of Germany, and rescued it from the dominion of Bonaparte. (See *Leipzig*.) Trieste, and the whole Dal-

HISTORY.

matian coast, were brought under the dominion of Austria; and Switzerland was recovered from the influence of France. After Bonaparte abdicated the throne of France, in 1814, the allied powers concluded a treaty at Paris, by which the German states were to be independent, and united by a federal league. As the Austrian or Catholic Netherlands were unable to secure their independence, the whole of Belgium was formed into a single state, under the sovereignty of the house of Orange. After the battle of Waterloo, 1815, a congress of the allied powers was held at Vienna, at which the future tranquillity of Germany was provided for by a solemn act of confederation, signed by its sovereigns and free cities, including the emperor of Austria and the king of Prussia, for those of their possessions formerly appertaining to the German empire: the king of Denmark for Holstein, and the king of the Netherlands for Luxembourg.

GERONA, a small but strong town of Spain, in Catalonia. No city has given greater proofs of the characteristic intrepidity of the Catalans; it is famous in history for various sieges and obstinate defences; the last, and, perhaps, the most remarkable of these, took place in 1809, when it did not yield to the power of Bonaparte until after a most resolute resistance.

GERONTIUS, a captain under Constantine, who quarrelled with his master, and intending to strip him of his purple, and set up Maximus, besieged him in Vienna; but hearing that Honorius's army was marching against him, under Constantine, he fled into Spain. The soldiers despising him for his flight, attacked him in his own house in 411, where, finding he could not defend himself, he first killed his wife, and then stabbed himself.

GERSDORF, a village of Saxony, the scene of the action between the French and allies on the 5th of May, 1813, the third day after the battle of Lutzen.

GHEENT, or **GAND**, a large city of the Netherlands. The town

and citadel were entered without resistance by the French in 1792, and again in 1794; they remained, with the rest of the Netherlands, twenty years in their hands. Ghent was the residence of Louis XVIII. during his temporary exclusion from France in 1815. It has been the scene of several diplomatic negotiations, in particular of the compact of the province of the Netherlands against the tyranny of Spain in 1578, called the pacification of Ghent, and more lately of the treaty of peace between Britain and America, in December, 1814. Besides Charles V. Ghent was the birth-place of John of Gaunt, so well known in English history; and of Heiniaus, the minister of Holland, at the close of the seventeenth century.

GIBRALTAR, a well-known promontory in the south of Spain: It was taken by the English in 1704, soon after the commencement of the war of the Spanish succession; it has since been repeatedly besieged, (first in 1705, next in 1727, and, lastly, in our first American war,) but always without success. Of its memorable defence under general Elliot, the following are the principal particulars:—The garrison varied from 5000 to 7000 men; the first operations took place in July 1779; they were continued during that year, also in 1780 and 1781. In this period the garrison was deprived of regular communication with England, and could be relieved only by the arrival of a powerful fleet; this was effected twice; once by admiral Rodney, and, subsequently, by admiral Darby. At last, in 1782, the Spaniards, aided by a powerful fleet and army from France, determined to make a grand attack by floating batteries; this took place on the 13th of September, but was wholly defeated by the effect of red-hot shot from the garrison. Next month a British fleet arrived with succours, and the siege was definitively relinquished on the signature of peace, in February, 1783.

GIGES, king of Lydia, first a soldier of king Gandaules. He

became afterwards so great a favourite, that the prince, who thought his queen the fairest woman in the world, exposed her to him. The queen was so enraged at this affront, that she commanded Giges to kill the king, or prepare for death himself. He chose the first; and then marrying the queen, reigned forty-nine years, and founded the dynasty of the Merminades; which lasted from A. R. 40, to the defeat of Cræsus, 210.

GILIMER, a friend of Huneric, king of the Vandals, in Africa, and was to have succeeded him; but he dethroned him, and seated himself in his place, in 531. Justinian, desirous of recovering Africa, wrote to Gilimer in favour of Huneric; and making Gilimer's contempt of his letters a pretext, he sent Belisarius into Africa, who re-took Carthage, and, pursuing Gilimer, compelled him by hunger to surrender, and carried him to Constantinople; where he was brought before Justinian, who allowed him to live in Galatia; and, in the mean time, Africa was reduced into a Roman province, as it had been before the conquest by the Vandals.

GIOVANNI, Castel San, a small town of the north of Italy. Here the French general, Macdonald, was defeated by Suwarrow, in June 1799, after an obstinate and sanguinary conflict.

GLENCOE, a vale of Scotland, in Argyleshire. It is noted for the cruel massacre of its inhabitants in 1691, by the troops of king William.

GLOUCESTER, (Humphrey, duke of,) called the Good, was appointed protector during the minority of Henry VI. He was accused of treason, and thrown into prison; soon after, he was found dead in his bed; and though it was pretended that his death was natural, and his body bore no marks of outward violence, it was not doubted but he had fallen a victim to the vengeance of his enemies.

GODOLPHIN, (Sidney,) earl of Godolphin, and lord high-treasurer of England, was born in Cornwall, and educated at Oxford. He was employed in the reigns of Charles II. and James II., though he had

voted for the exclusion of the latter, in 1680. In the debate concerning the vacancy of the throne, in the convention-parliament, he voted for a regency; notwithstanding which he was made first-commissioner of the treasury; and, on the accession of queen Anne, was placed at the head of that office; which situation he discharged to the public satisfaction. In 1704, he was honoured with the order of the Garter; and, two years afterwards, was raised to an earldom: but, in 1710, he was removed from office. He died in 1712.

GODFREY VI., lord of Bouillon, marquis of Anvers, and duke of Brabant, was the son of Eustace II. count of Boulogne, celebrated for his bravery and power among the puissant and courageous lords of Belgium. Godfrey was alike distinguished for political courage and personal bravery. In the wars between the emperor and the popes, he took the part of Henry IV.; he received the distinction of bearing the imperial standard. On the termination of the rebellion of Conrad, in 1080, he was invested with the titles of duke of Lorraine, marquis of Anvers, and lord of Bouillon. In the siege of Rome he broke through the walls, and opened the gates to the assailants. These services were, however, ill requited; since Henry dishonoured, in an outrageous manner, his empress Praxeda. Godfrey, alive to every call of honour, armed himself against the emperor; he triumphed, and Henry was put to flight. In the breaking out of the first crusade, he sold to the church of Liege, his beautiful lordship and castle of Bouillon, and laid out the money in preparations for the war. His army comprised the Frisons, the Lorrainers, and all the votaries of the sepulchre who dwell between the Rhine and the Elbe. They commenced their march from the Moselle, in August, 1096, and proceeded unmolested till they reached the northern frontier of Hungary. Here he experienced some interruption, but it was finally arranged, and Baldwin was the hostage on the part of the Franks. On the banks

HISTORY.

of the Save, near Malleville, the hostages were released, and the crusaders entered the states of Greece. Here Alexius Comnenus opened the imperial granaries, and allowed him free passage. In May, 1097, the siege and capture of Nice commenced. The different generals followed their own principles of hostility. Godfrey was on the north: the crusaders were sufficiently numerous to assault the whole of the walls: they erected wooden towers, and having impelled them against the stone towers of the city, the engagements between the Christians and Musselmans were hand to hand. Kilidge-Arsian, the Seljakian sultan of Rhoun, with 80,000 troops, stationed himself in the mountains overhanging the plains of Nice. The Moslems were, on every spot, received with firmness, and not being seconded by the garrison, they retreated precipitately into the mountains. The next morning they renewed their attacks, and the Nissians made the expected sortie. At length Kilidge-Arsian was compelled to retire, and leave Nice to its fate. The Christians were merciful to the messengers, but they cut off the heads of the dead and wounded Turks. The siege was re-commenced with renewed courage. The carnage was dreadful on both sides, and the Nissians dragged up, with iron hooks, numberless dead bodies of their foes. Alexius now sent a large number of vessels from Civitot to the Christian camp. They were soon launched, and were filled by Butumite and the Turcoples, who were in imperial pay. The Nissians, mistook it for a succour from their sultan; but the Grecian standards, the shouts of the men, and the noise of the instruments of war, soon changed their curiosity into despair. The crusaders now urged their assaults with renewed vigour. A Lombard, under the cover of a chat-chatell, set about taking the Gonatos; he first loosened the foundations of the tower, and supported it with logs, and the cavities were filled with combustible matter. At

night the mass was ignited, and the pile fell with a tremendous crash. At length after a month's siege, Godfrey captured the town; then Edessa and Antioch, in 1098. Four years afterwards he subdued Lyaconia, Syria, and Mesopotamia, which so intimidated the Saracens that the caliph of Egypt sued for peace. In 1099, he took Jerusalem. The forces before Nice amounted to 700,000; but, on their arrival at Jerusalem they were only 40,000. The city was invested by the Croises, June 7, and after one of the most obstinate sieges recorded in history, it was taken, (*See Jerusalem.*) On entering the city, Godfrey drew his sword, and murdered the helpless Saracens in revenge for the Christian blood spilt by the Moslems. He did not neglect his religious duties. He threw off his armour, clothed himself in a mantle, and, with bare head and naked feet, went to the church of the sepulchre. On the foundation of the Latin kingdom of Jerusalem, in the same year, Godfrey's virtues were declared to be pre-eminent, and the princes conducted him to the church which covered the tomb of Christ; but refusing to wear a diadem where his Saviour had worn a crown of thorns, he modestly claimed the honour of becoming the defender and advocate of the holy sepulchre. He, however, enjoyed his conquests but a short time; he died in 1100, after he had reigned about one year.

GOES, or TER GOES, a small town of the Netherlands. It was besieged by the insurgents in the reign of Philip II. of Spain, the siege was raised in an extraordinary manner, the Spaniards marching a body of troops seven miles through the water from Bergen-op-Zoom, across a ford which was never deemed practicable before, and has never been attempted since.

GONDIOCH, king of the Burgundians, who settled himself in Gaul, and extended his conquests from the Rhone to the Saonne, about the year 424. He lost 20,000 of his subjects whilst ravaging

Germany; after which he sued for peace. He was afterwards killed by Oeter, king of the Huns; though, as others say, by Attila, in 437.—GONDLOCH, his son, succeeded to the kingdom of Burgundy, together with his brother Chilperic, in 437. About 443, they obtained Savoy of the Romans. In 452, they assisted Theodoric, king of the Visigoths, against Rechiar, king of the Suevians, in Spain. In 455, Gundloch, taking the advantage of the Roman divisions, captured Vienna and Lyon, and subdued part of Gaul: He died in 475.

GONZALES, of Cordova, a celebrated Spaniard, who served under Ferdinand and Isabel in the conquest of Granada, where he took several strong places from the Moors. Ferdinand IV. gave him the command of the forces which he sent into the kingdom of Naples, to succour Frederic and Alphonso. He besieged Otranto, took the town by capitulation, and set the young duke at liberty; but when he was in possession of the town, he pretended to have received new orders from the king, and sent the young prince a prisoner into Spain. After this, the Spaniards and French disagreeing, Gonzales, having in two signal battles first defeated d'Aubigny, and taken him prisoner; in the second, killed Lewis Armagnac, duke of Nemours; and, in a third bloody battle, fought near the Garigliano, and utterly defeated the French, made himself master of Cajeta, and settled the kingdom of Naples under the dominion of the Spaniards. He died in 1515.

GORCUM, or GORINCHEM, a small town of South Holland. It is fortified, and made some resistance at the time of the Prussian invasion of Holland, in 1787; it was again the scene of a battle in the spring of 1814, the French, on their retreat, having left a garrison in it. Here is shown the house where Grotius took refuge, after escaping from the tower of Levenstein, the place of imprisonment for the opponents of the house of Orange in that age.

GORDIANUS, (M. Antoninus Africanus,) a son of Metius Marcellus,

descended from Trajan by his mother's side. He was elected consul, and went to take the government of Africa, in the capacity of proconsul. After he had attained his eightieth year, in the greatest splendour and domestic tranquillity, he was roused from his peaceful occupations by the tyrannical reign of the Maximini, and he was proclaimed emperor by the rebellious troops of his province. He long declined to accept the imperial purple, but the threats of immediate death gained his compliance. Maximinus marched against him with the greatest indignation; and Gordian sent his son, with whom he shared the imperial dignity, to oppose the enemy. Young Gordian was killed; and the father, worn out with age, and grown desperate on account of his misfortunes, strangled himself at Carthage, before he had been six weeks at the head of the empire, A. D. 236. He was universally lamented by the army and people.—M. Antoninus Africanus, son of Gordianus, was made prefect of Rome, and afterwards consul, by the emperor Alexander Severus. He passed into Africa, in the character of lieutenant to his father, who had obtained that province; and seven years after, he was elected emperor, in conjunction with him. He marched against the partizans of Maximinus, his antagonist in Mauritania, and was killed in a bloody battle, on the 25th of June, A. D. 236, after a reign of about six weeks.—M. Antoninus Pius, grandson to the first Gordian, was but twelve years old when he was honoured with the title of Cæsar. He was proclaimed emperor in the sixteenth year of his age, and his election was attended with universal marks of approbation. In the eighteenth year of his age, he married Furia Sabina Tranquillina, daughter of Misitheus, a man celebrated for his eloquence and public virtues. Misitheus was entrusted with the most important offices of the state by his son-in-law; and his administration proved he was deserving of the confidence and affection of his imperial master. He

HISTORY.

corrected the various abuses which prevailed in the state, and restored the ancient discipline among the soldiers. By his prudence and political sagacity, all the chief towns in the empire were stored with provisions, which could maintain the emperor and a large army during fifteen days upon any emergency. Gordian was not less active than his father-in-law; and when Sapor, the king of Persia, had invaded the Roman provinces in the east, he boldly marched to meet him, and, in his way, defeated a large body of Goths, in Mœsia. He conquered Sapor, and took many flourishing cities in the east, from his adversary. In this success the senate decreed him a triumph, and saluted Misiheus as the guardian of the republic. Gordian was assassinated in the east, A.D. 244, at the instigation of Philip, who had succeeded to the virtuous Misiheus, and who then usurped the sovereign power. The senate, sensible of his merit, honoured him with a most splendid funeral on the confines of Persia, and ordered that the descendants of the Gordians should ever be free, at Rome, from all the heavy taxes and burdens of the state. During the reign of Gordianus, there was an uncommon eclipse of the sun, in which the stars appeared in the middle of the day.

GORÉE, a small island, off the coast of Africa, near cape Verd. The first European power which occupied this spot was the Dutch, who, in 1617, concluded a treaty of cession with Birar, king of Cape Verd. They then applied themselves to strengthen it by several fortifications; notwithstanding which, it was taken, in 1663, by admiral Holmes, but re-taken two years after by De Ruyter. In 1677, a French squadron, commanded by the count d'Estrees, laid siege to, and forced it to surrender in a short time; and, by the treaty of Nimiguen, it was finally ceded to France.

GOURDON, (Bertrand de,) the assassin of Richard I. The wound which the king received was rendered mortal by the unskilful-

ness of the surgeon; and Richard, sensible that he was drawing near an end, sent for Gourdon: "Wretch," said he, "what have I ever done to you, to induce you to seek my life?"—"You have," replied the prisoner, "killed with your own hand my father and my two brothers: I am now in your power; you may inflict the severest torments on me; but I shall endure them with pleasure, provided I can think I have been so happy as to deliver the world of a tyrant." The mind of Richard was softened by the approach of death, and the magnanimity of Gourdon; he ordered him to be released, and an annual sum of money to be allowed him; but one of Richard's generals privately seized the prisoner, flayed him alive and then hanged him.

GOSSELIPS, a large village of the Netherlands, in Hainault. Between this place and Fleurus a battle took place between the French and Austrians, on the 26th June, 1794; in which the French, under Jourdan, were victorious, and thereby came into possession of Flanders.

GOTHS (the) are said to have come originally from Scandinavia; but the time of their emigration is uncertain. Northern writers call the peopling of the Chersonesus, of the islands in the Baltic Sea, and of the adjacent places on the continent, the first migration of the Goths or Getae. Their second happened several ages after, under the conduct of Berig, who seized on the country of the Ulmerugians, now Pomerania, and compelled the neighbouring Vandals to share their possessions with his followers. From Pomerania a numerous colony was sent into Scythia, and, in process of time, returned into Germany. Under Alaric, the Goths took and plundered Rome, A.D. 395. Ataulphus first introduced the Goths into Spain; and, without losing sight of that country, Valia fixed his seat of empire at Toulouse. Theodoric II. seized upon almost all that belonged to the Romans in Gaul; and his son,

Theodorice III. made himself master of all Italy, took Ravenna after a siege of three years, and put Odoacer to death in 488. The Franks unanimously rose in arms against his descendants, and terminated the dominion of the Goths in Gaul, who fixed their royal seat at Toledo in Spain.

GOWRIE, the chief actor in a conspiracy against James VI. of Scotland, the object of which was to hold James in captivity, and overthrow Lenox and Arran.

GRACCHUS, (T. Sempronius,) father of Tiberius and Caius Gracchus, twice consul and once censor, was distinguished by his integrity as well as his prudence and superior ability, both in the senate and at the head of the armies. He made war in Gaul, and met with much success in Spain. He married Sempronia, of the family of the Scipios, a woman of great virtue, piety, and learning. Their children, Tiberius and Caius, who had been educated under the watchful eye of their mother, rendered themselves famous for their eloquence, seditions, and an obstinate attachment to the interests of the populace, which at last proved fatal to them. With a winning eloquence, affected moderation, and uncommon popularity, Tiberius began to renew the Agrarian law, which had already caused great dissensions at Rome. By the means of violence, his proposition passed into a law, and he was appointed commissioner, with his father-in-law Appius Claudius, and his brother Caius, to make an equal division of the lands among the people. The riches of Attalus, which were left to the Roman people by will, were distributed without opposition; and Tiberius enjoyed the triumph of his successful enterprise, when he was assassinated in the midst of his adherents by P. Natica, while the populace were all unanimous to re-elect him to serve the office of tribune the following year. The death of Tiberius checked for a while the friends of the people: but Caius, spurred by ambition and furious zeal, attempted to remove every

obstacle which stood in his way by force and violence. He supported the cause of the people with more vehemence, but less moderation, than Tiberius; and his success served only to awaken his ambition, and animate his resentment against the nobles. With the privileges of a tribune, he soon became the arbiter of the republic, and treated the patri-cians with contempt. This behaviour hastened his ruin, and in the tumult he fled to the temple of Diana, where his friends prevented him from committing suicide. This increased the sedition, and he was murdered by order of the consul Opimius, B. C. 121, about thirteen years after the unfortunate end of Tiberius.

GRAFTON, (Augustus Henry Fitzroy, duke of,) was born September 28, 1736. He succeeded his grandfather in the family honours, in 1757; and in 1765 was appointed secretary of state; but the year following he relinquished that station, and soon after became first lord of the treasury, which he held till 1770. During his administration, he was virulently attacked by Junius, who seems to have been actuated by personal enmity. In 1771, the duke was nominated lord-privy-seal, which office he resigned in 1775, and acted in opposition to the court till 1782, when he was again in place for a short time. After this, he was uniformly an opponent of ministers, till his death, March 11, 1811.

GRAHAMSTON, a village of Scotland, in Stirlingshire, so called from sir John de Graham being killed here, in the battle which Wallace fought with Edward I., in 1296.

GRAMONT (Anthony, duke of,) marshal of France in the reign of Louis XIV. was descended from a noble family in Navarre, and related to cardinal Richelieu by marriage. He died in 1678, aged seventy-four.

GRAMONT (Philibert, count of,) son of Anthony duke of Gramont. After serving in the army under Condé and Turenne, he came to England in the early part of the

HISTORY.

reign of Charles the Second, with whom he became a great favourite, as he also was with the whole court, particularly the ladies. He married the daughter of sir George Hamilton, fourth son of the earl of Abercorn, and died in 1707. His memoirs were written by his brother-in-law, Anthony, commonly called count Hamilton, who adhered to James II., and died in the French service, in 1720.

GRANBY, (marquis of,) distinguished himself in Germany, at the head of the English, in an attack on the French in their encampment at Gravenstein. The whole of their army would have been destroyed, had it not been for the intrepidity and presence of mind of M. Stainville, one of the French officers, who sacrificed the whole of the corps of the infantry, to secure the retreat of the cavalry.

GRANSON, or **GRANSEE**, a small town of the Swiss canton of the Vaud, on the lake of Neuchâtel. It is memorable for a victory obtained here in 1476, over the troops of Charles the Bold, duke of Burgundy.

GRANVILLE, or **GREENVILLE** (George,) viscount Lansdowne, was the grandson of sir Bevil Greenville, and born in 1667. He lived a retired life till the accession of queen Anne, when he was elected into parliament. In 1710 he was appointed secretary-at-war; and in 1711 advanced to the peerage. In 1712 he was sworn of the privy-council, and soon after made treasurer to the queen; from which office he was removed in the next reign, and sent to the Tower, for his supposed attachment to the house of Stuart; but was soon released. He died in 1735.

GRATIANUS, a native of Pannonia, father to the emperor Valentinian the First. He was raised to the throne, though only eight years old; and after he had reigned for some time conjointly with his father, he became sole emperor in the sixteenth year of his age. He soon after took, as his imperial colleague, Theodosius, whom he appointed over the eastern parts of the empire. His courage in the

field was as remarkable as his love of learning, and fondness of philosophy. He slaughtered 30,000 Germans in a battle, and supported the tottering state by his prudence and intrepidity. His enmity to the Pagan superstition of his subjects proved his ruin; and Maximinus, who undertook the defence of the worship of Jupiter and of all the gods, was joined by an infinite number of discontented Romans, and met Gratian near Paris, in Gaul. Gratian was forsaken by his troops in the field of battle, and was murdered by the rebels, A. D. 303, in the twenty-fourth year of his age.

GRATTAN, (Henry,) a statesman, was born about 1756, in Dublin. He was elected into the Irish parliament in 1775; and by his powerful remonstrances obtained for his country a participation in the commerce of Britain, for which he was rewarded with a vote of 50,000*l*. In 1790, he was returned for the city of Dublin, and from that time was the active leader of the opposition till the Union, which measure he resisted with all his eloquence. When it was effected, he accepted a seat in the imperial parliament for Malton. In the late war he supported government, with great ability; but his principal exertions were called forth in advocating the Catholic claims, to which cause he fell a martyr, by leaving Ireland, in an exhausted state, to carry the petition, with which he was entrusted, to England. He died soon after his arrival, May 14, 1820; and his remains were interred in Westminster Abbey.

GRAVELINES, a small town of French Flanders. In 1556 a French army was defeated near this town by the Spaniards; but, in 1696, it was attacked and taken by the French, and has remained in their hands ever since.

GREECE, a celebrated country of Europe, bounded on the west by the Ionian sea, south by the Mediterranean sea, east by the Aegean, and north by Thrace and Dalmatia. It is generally divided into four large provinces; Macedonia, Epirus, Achaia or Hellas,

How is the evolution more far & closer



THE NEW YORK
PUBLIC LIBRARY

ASTOR, LENOX AND
TILDEN FOUNDATIONS

RR
RY

land Peloponnesus. This country has been reckoned superior to every other part of the earth, on account of the salubrity of the air, the temperature of the climate, the fertility of the soil, and, above all, the fame, learning, and arts of its inhabitants. The Greeks have severally been called Achæons, Argians, Danaï, Dolopes, Hellenians, Ionians, Myrmidons, and Pelasgians. The most celebrated of their cities were Athens, Sparta, Argos, Corinth, Thebes, Sicyon, Mycenæ, Delphi, Trozæne, Salamis, Megara, Pylos, &c. The inhabitants, whose history is darkened, in its primitive ages, with fabulous accounts and traditions, supposed that they were the original inhabitants of the country, and born from the earth where they dwelt; and they heard, with contempt, the probable conjectures, which traced their origin among the first inhabitants of Asia, and the colonies of Egypt. In the first periods of their history, the Greeks were governed by monarchs; and there were as many kings as there were cities. The monarchical power gradually decreased; the love of liberty established the republican government; and no part of Greece, except Macedonia, remained in the hands of an absolute sovereign. The expedition of the Argonauts first rendered the Greeks respectable among their neighbours; and, in the succeeding age, the wars of Thebes and Troy gave opportunity to their heroes and demi-gods to display their valor in the field of battle. The simplicity of the ancient Greeks rendered them virtuous; and the establishment of the Olympic games in particular, where the noble reward of the conqueror was a laurel crown, contributed to their aggrandizement, and made them ambitious of fame, and not the slaves of riches. The austerity of their laws, and the education of their youth, particularly at Lacedæmon, rendered them brave and active, insensible to bodily pain, fearless and intrepid in the time of danger. The celebrated battles of Marathon, Thermopylæ, Salamis,

Platæa, and Mycæ, sufficiently shew what superiority the courage of a little army can obtain over millions of undisciplined barbarians. After many signal victories over the Persians, they became elated with their success; and when they found no one able to dispute their power abroad, they turned their arms one against the other, and leagued with foreign states to destroy the most flourishing of their cities. The Messenian and Peloponnesian wars are examples of the dreadful calamities which arise from civil discord and long prosperity, and the success with which the gold and the sword of Philip and of his son corrupted and enslaved Greece, fatally proved that when a nation becomes indolent and dissipated at home, it ceases to be respectable in the eyes of the neighbouring states. The annals of Greece, however, abound with singular proofs of heroism and resolution. The bold retreat of the 10,000, who had assisted Cyrus against his brother Artaxerxes, reminded their countrymen of their superiority over all other nations; and taught Alexander that the conquest of the east might be effected with a handful of Grecian soldiers. While the Greeks rendered themselves so illustrious by their military exploits, the arts and sciences were assisted by conquest, and received fresh lustre from the application and industry of their professors. (See *Athens, Lacedæmon, Corinth, Thebes, Sicyon, Salamis, Epirus, &c.*) Since the fifteenth century, Greece has been subject to the government of the Turks. The Turkish division of modern Greece is into four pachalics: first, Tripolitza, comprising the whole of the Morea; second, Egripos, or Negropont; third, Joannina, including Thessaly and part of Albania; and fourth, Salonica, in which are comprehended the southern parts of Macedon. Modern Greece, however, exhibits little more than a mere wreck of fallen magnificence and grandeur; and, the nation which once presented a formidable rival, with the mightiest city

of the whole world, now presents a miserable picture of indolence and apathy. The emancipation of the Greeks from the dominion of the Turks has been a question much discussed in modern times. A remembrance of the superiority of their ancestors is now very generally diffused among them, and inspires them with an indignant feeling that civilized Europe should not have come forward to enable them to throw off the fetters of slavery, when they had lent their assistance to causes of minor importance, which involved whole nations in a series of anarchy and bloodshed. With allied Europe now, aggrandisement, or firmer security of the kingly power, is one question, and the liberties of the people another.

GREENVILLE (sir Richard,) was born at Stow, in the parish of Kilkhampton, in Cornwall, in 1540. He entered early into the military life; and, after serving as a volunteer against the Turks, went to Ireland. He next joined sir Walter Raleigh in his expedition to America; and, in 1591, became vice-admiral under sir Thomas Howard, who was sent out to the Azores to intercept the Plate fleet. The Spaniards, however, being apprised of the design, dispatched a powerful squadron, which succeeding in cutting off Greenville's ship from the rest; and he died of his wounds, after an obstinate contest.

GREENVILLE (sir Bevil,) grandson of the preceding, was born in 1596. He received his education at Exeter-college, Oxford; after which, he became a member of parliament. At the commencement of the civil war, he raised a troop of horse at his own expense; and was killed at the battle of Lansdowne, July 5, 1643. Lord Clarendon gives him a most exalted character.

GREGORY, the seventy-third king of Scotland, in 875, son of Donagallus. He marched against the Picts, left by the Danes in Fife, and drove them thence, and out of Lothian. Being admitted in the night-time into Berwick, he put all the Danish garrison to the

sword, marched into Northumberland, gained a decisive victory over Hardicanute, and recovered all that part of the country. He next turned his arms against the Britons, who still retained some of the Scottish dominions; he, however, made peace with them, on their giving up the land, and promise of assistance, should the Danes return. They afterwards renewed hostilities with Scotland, but, as they were carrying away a great booty, Gregory met them at Loch Maban, and after a bloody contest, overthrew them and their king Constantine; the Scots were left in possession of what they had taken from the Danes. Soon after, the Irish making an irruption into Galway, sacked it on pretence that the men of Galway had hostilely seized upon and plundered some galleys driven on their coasts, belonging to the inhabitants of Dublin. Gregory followed them into Ireland with a strong army, and having defeated their forces, took Drogheda, and Dublin. The inhabitants having agreed that they should admit neither English, Danes, or Bretons into the island, without his permission, he returned home in triumph, carrying along with him sixty hostages for the performance of their agreement. He died in 892, in the eighteenth year of his reign.

GREGORY I. of that name, pope of Rome, surnamed the Great, succeeded Pelagius II. in 590, and was the first introducer of purgatory, litanies, processions, expiations by masses, invocation of saints, lustration upon the purification of the virgin, stations, and pilgrimages, into the church. He sat thirteen years six months and ten days, and died in 604.—**GREGORY II.** succeeded Constantine I. in the year 714. Gregory would not allow the Italians to pay any tribute to the emperor; and endeavoured to alienate all the western parts from their obedience to Leo; and entered into a league with the Franks against him. This contest between the pope and the emperor, was the occasion of great commotions in Rome and Ravenna;

where Paulus was killed, supporting the emperor's claims. At length Gregory died, in 731, after he had sat sixteen years, eight months, and twenty days.—GREGORY III. succeeded the former, five days after his decease. He assisted the duke of Spoleto against Luitprand, king of the Lombards; but Luitprand proving victorious by the fortitude of Rachisius, besieged Rome; upon which, the pope sent to Charles Martel for assistance, through whose mediation, Luitprand raised his siege. He died in the eighth year of his pontificate, in the year 741.—GREGORY IV. being elected pope in the year 827, would not accept of the dignity till his election was confirmed by Ludovicus, the emperor. He instituted the feast of All Saints, and died in 843, after he had sat sixteen years.—GREGORY V., before called Bruno, the son of Otho duke of Suevia, was made pope by the emperor Otho III. in the year 996. He died in the year 999, after he had sat two years and five months.—GREGORY VI. bought the pontificate of Benedict IX., who sold it because he was not able to withstand Sylvester III., who contested the popedom both with him and Gregory. But the emperor Henry III. marching into Italy, deposed them, and made them surrender their pretensions to Clement II. in 1046. However, Gregory sat two years and seven months, after which he went into Germany, where he died the same year.—GREGORY VII., called Hildebrand before his election, succeeded Alexander II. in the year 1073, being advanced by the suffrages of the cardinals without the emperor's authority; and, the better to confirm himself in the pontificate, abolished the imperial power of conferring investiture upon bishops and clergymen, and became an inveterate enemy of the emperor Henry IV. He prevailed upon Rodolphus duke of Suevia, to assume the title of emperor, and take up arms against the emperor; but Rodolphus being overthrown and slain, Henry marched directly into Italy, besieged Rome, and took the city,

and established Clement III.; upon which, Gregory fled to Salerno, and there died, after he had sat twelve years, one month, and three days.—GREGORY VIII. was of Beneventum, and succeeding Urban III. sat only two months. He died in 1187, the same year he was chosen.—GREGORY IX. succeeded Honorius III. in the year 1227, and continued an imbittered enmity against the emperor Frederic II., which his predecessor had done before him. Being desirous of getting the emperor out of Italy, he admonished him to accelerate his expedition into the Holy Land; and, because he staid longer than the pope was willing, Gregory accused him of perjury, adultery, and severity to his wife; and threatened him with excommunication. The emperor proceeding in his expedition, without taking his leave of the holy father, the pope commanded the army in Syria not to follow or obey him. But Frederic proving victorious, at his return was reconciled to Gregory, in 1241, after he had sat fourteen years, five months, and three days.—GREGORY X. was chosen pope in his absence, at Viterbo, in the year 1272. He endeavoured to reconcile the Guefts and Gibellines, and died in 1276, after he had sat four years.—GREGORY XI. succeeded Urban V. in 1390, and was the first of those popes who translated the pontifical see from Avignon to Rome. He died in the seventh year of his pontificate, in the year 1378.—GREGORY XII. was chosen at Rome, while Benedict XIII. sat at Avignon, on condition, that he should resign the pontificate, if Benedict would consent to do the same. Both failing, the colleges of both popes, assembling at Pisa, pronounced them to have forfeited the papacy, and set up Alexander V. who, dying two months after, John XXIII. was set up, and thus there were popes, at one time, Benedict, Gregory, and John. Gregory held his own eight years, till the council of Constance, when he resigned the pontificate, in the year 1415.—GREGORY XIII. succeeded Pius V. in the year 1573,

HISTORY.

He was the author of the Gregorian Calendar, and died in the year 1586, after he had sat thirteen years.—**GREGORY XIV.** succeeded Urban VII. in 1623. He proclaimed a Jubilee, and expended vast sums of money to support the league of France, in hatred of hugenots and heretics. He sat ten months, and died in 1621.—**GREGORY XV.** succeeded Paul V. in 1621, erected the bishopric of Paris into a metropolitan see, and founded the propagation of faith. He sat two years five days, and died in 1622.

GRENADA, an island in the West Indies. It was discovered by Columbus in the year 1498; and, in 1634, the new settlers proceeded in their accustomed, but horrible, plan of exterminating the native inhabitants. After the peace of Utrecht, this island began to improve; and, in 1763, the English became masters of it.

GRENOBLE, a large town in the south of France, is noted for having been the first place that opened its gates to Napoleon, on his return from Elba; he entered it on the 6th of March, 1815.

GREY (lady Jane), was the daughter of Henry Grey, marquis of Dorset, by lady Frances Brandon, daughter of the duke of Suffolk; so that she was royally descended on both sides. She was born in 1537, at Bradgate, her father's seat in Leicestershire; and early in life gave proofs of uncommon genius. She worked admirably with her needle; wrote an incomparable hand; played well on different instruments; and acquired a knowledge of the Greek and Latin, as well as of the French and Italian, languages. Roger Ascham has given a beautiful and affecting narrative of his interview with her at Bradgate, where he found her reading Plato's *Phædon*, in Greek, while the family were amusing themselves in the park. In 1551, her father was created duke of Suffolk; and at this time lady Jane Grey was much at court; where the ambitious duke of Northumberland projected a marriage between her and his son, lord Guilford Dudley, which took place

at the end of May, 1553. Soon after this Edward VI. died, having been prevailed upon, in his last illness, to settle the crown upon the lady Jane, who, against her will, was proclaimed with great pomp. This gleam of royalty, however, was of short duration. The kingdom was dissatisfied, and the nobility indignant at the presumption of Northumberland, so that Mary more from this circumstance soon overcame her enemies, and she was not backward in taking revenge. Lady Jane and her husband, after being confined in the Tower some months, were arraigned and condemned to death, November 3d, 1553. This sentence was not carried into execution till the 13th of February, in the following year, when lord Guilford first suffered, and his lady immediately afterwards, on the same scaffold. She died with the firmness and meekness of a martyr; for such no doubt she was, since her religious principles, as a protestant, were more offensive to the queen than the part which she had been compelled to take. On the evening previous to her death, she sent a Greek letter to her sister; and even after seeing the headless body of her husband carried to the chapel, she wrote three sentences, in Greek, Latin, and English, in a table-book, which she presented to the lieutenant of the tower.

GRIEFSWALDE, a town in the part of Pomerania belonging to Prussia. In 1678 this town was taken by the elector of Brandenburg; and the garrison, together with that of Stralsund, consisting of 4000 men, were almost all lost in a storm, in their voyage to Sweden.

GRODNO, a town of Russian Poland, was the retreat of Stanislaus during the troubles of 1793, and the place where he made a final abdication of his crown, on the 25th of November of that year. The town was taken by the Russians in 1792.

GROSSWIG, a village of Prussian Saxony. A great battle was fought here in 1760, between Frederick II. and marshal Daun, com-

monly called the battle of Torgau; the advantage was on the side of the Prussians.

GUALID, the eighth caliph, or successor of Mohammed, reigned after the death of Abdulmelic, his father, in 708. On his coming to the crown, he took from the christians the magnificent church of Damascus. In 710, he sent Musa with a powerful army into Africa, to reduce the revolted Africans. Musa having subdued those people, extended his conquests into Spain, where he fixed the Arabians in 712. Gualid sent three great armies into the provinces of the Turkish empire; who made great havoc in Romania and Cilicia, and returned to Damascus laden with booty. After this, he raised another army, with a resolution to besiege Constantinople, refusing to grant the truce that Theodosius III. demanded of him. He, however, died before he could put his design in execution.

GUALID II. succeeded Jezil II. in 727. He waged war with the emperor of Constantinople; and in 742 did much mischief in the provinces of the empire, but died in 746, after he had reigned nineteen years.

GUALIOR, a very celebrated fortress of Hindostan, in the province of Agra. On the dismemberment of the Mogul government, it fell into the hands of the Mahrattas, and was taken from them by the British troops under general Popham, by stratagem, in the year 1780. It was then made over to the rahnah of Gohud; but, in 1784, Dowlet Rou Sindia got possession of it, by bribing the commandant and garrison. During the war of 1804, lord Lake sent a British detachment against this fortress, under the command of colonel Henry White, who, notwithstanding its supposed impregnability, effected a breach through all its walls, and was about to storm it, when the garrison capitulated, and the fort was immediately taken possession of by his troops. On the conclusion of peace with the Mahrattas this place was ceded to the English; but lord Cornwallis, with more generosity than

prudence, disapproved of the treaty, and Gualior was restored to them, and is now in their possession.

QUASTALLAH, a town in the north of Italy, in the states of Parma. It is noted for the obstinate battle fought in its neighbourhood by the French and Austrians, on the 10th of September, 1794, to the advantage of the former.

GUELPHS, the name of a family, one of two opposite factions, that divided Florence about the year 1265, the partizans of papal and imperial power. The family of the Uberti were at the head of the Florentine Ghibelins, the other faction; and the people, or rather republican party, resented their contumacy so much, that they ran to arms, broke into the palace of the Uberti, and, having killed some, forced all the Ghibelins to take refuge in Sienna, where they were hospitably received, in direct violation of a treaty between the Florentines and Siennese.

GUIENNE, a large province in the south-west of France. In the fourteenth century, this part of France was the scene of a long warfare between the French and English, under Edward III. and the Black Prince; it was from Guienne that the latter marched, in 1356, when he fought the battle of Poitiers.

GUILDFORD, the capital of the county of Surrey. Although it is confidently supposed to have possessed a palace of several early Anglo-Saxon kings, it is first mentioned in history as the scene of a barbarous transaction in the year 1036, at which time Alfred, son of the deceased king Ethelred, was treacherously seized by Godwin, earl of Kent, and, after his eyes had been put out, was shut up in a monastery for life.

GUILDFORD, a town of North Carolina. A sanguinary battle was fought here in 1781, between the British under lord Cornwallis, and the Americans under general Green.

GUILLON, a village of France, in Burgundy. Here was concluded, March 10, 1359, (Edward III.), a treaty by which the English

HISTORY.

agreed to withdraw their troops from Burgundy.

GUINEGAST, or **ENGUINE-GATTE**, a village of France, in the department of the Pas de Calais. In 1513, an engagement took place here between the French and the English, commonly called the Battle of the Speers, in which the former were defeated.

GUINES, a small town of France, in the department of the Pas de Calais, celebrated for the interview between the kings of England and France (Henry VIII. and Francis I.) in 1520.

GUISE, a city and dukedom of France, in Picardy, besieged by the Spaniards in 1528. The dukes of Guise were very important personages in all the affairs of France, from the reign of Francis I. to that of Henry IV. This family was a branch of the house of Lorraine, promoted, by Francis I., in 1528, from counts or earls of Guise, to duke of the same place. The first thus raised was Claude, the son of Renatus II. He had eight sons, among whom were Francis, duke of Guise, Claudius, duke of Aumale, and Renatus, marquis of Ellebeuf. Francis became very famous by his gallant defence of Metz against Charles V., and his surprising Calais from the English. He was assassinated in 1553. He was the father of Henry, duke of Guise, and Charles, duke of Mayne, &c. Henry placing himself at the head of the Holy League, was slain in the states of Blois, by the order of his prince, in 1588. Charles, the other brother, took up arms against Henry III. and continued them against Henry IV., till at last, in 1604, he was forced to submit to that victorious prince. Charles, the son of Henry, succeeded his father in the dukedom, and was the father of Henry II., who was chosen king of Naples.

GUNPOWDER-PLOT, a project contrived in the very beginning of the reign of James, I. for the re-establishment of popery, which, were it not a fact known to all the world, could scarcely be credited by posterity. The Roman catholics had expected great favour and indulgence on the accession of James,

both as a descendant of Mary, a rigid catholic, and also as having shewn some partiality to that religion in his youth; but they soon discovered their mistake, and were at once surprised and enraged to find James, on all occasions, express his resolution of strictly executing the laws enacted against them, and in persevering in the conduct of his predecessor. This declaration determined them to destroy the king and both houses of parliament at a blow. The scheme was first broached by Robert Cateby, a gentleman of good parts and ancient family, who conceived that a train of gunpowder might be so placed under the parliament-house, as to blow up the king and all the members at once. How horrid soever the contrivance might appear, yet every member seemed faithful and secret in the league; and, about two months before the sitting of parliament, they hired a house in the name of Percy, adjoining to that in which the parliament was to assemble. Their first intention was to bore a way under the parliament-house, from that which they occupied, and they set themselves laboriously to the task; but when they had pierced the wall, which was three yards in thickness, on approaching the other side, they were surprised to find that the house was vaulted underneath, and that a magazine of coals was usually deposited there. From their disappointment on this account they were soon relieved by information, that the coals were then selling off, and that the vaults would be let to the highest bidder. They, therefore, seized the opportunity of hiring the place, and bought the remaining quantity of coals, with which it was then stored, as if for their own use. The next thing done was to convey thither thirty-six barrels of gunpowder, which had been purchased in Holland; and the whole was covered with the coals and with faggots brought for that purpose. Then the doors of the cellar were boldly thrown open, and every body admitted, as if it contained nothing dangerous. Con

ident of success, they now began to plan the remaining part of their project. The king, the queen, and prince Henry, the king's eldest son, were all expected to be present at the opening of the parliament. The king's second son, by reason of his tender age, would be absent, and it was resolved that Percy should seize or assassinate him. The princess Elizabeth, a child, likewise, was kept at lord Harrington's house in Warwickshire; and sir Everard Digby was to seize her, and immediately proclaim her queen. The day for the sitting of parliament now approached. Never was treason more secret, or ruin more apparently inevitable; the hour was expected with impatience, and the conspirators gloried in their meditated guilt. The dreadful secret, though communicated to above twenty persons, had been religiously kept during the space of near a year and a half; yet, when all the motives of pity, justice, and safety, were too weak, a remorse of private friendship saved the kingdom. Sir Henry Percy, one of the conspirators, conceived a design of saving the life of lord Monteagle, his intimate friend and companion, who, also, was of the same persuasion with himself. About ten days before the meeting of parliament, this nobleman, upon his return to town, received a letter from a person unknown, and delivered by one who fled as soon as he had discharged his message. The letter was to this effect: "My lord, stay away from this parliament; for God and man have concurred to punish the wickedness of the times. And think not slightly of this advertisement, but retire yourself into your country, where you may expect the event in safety. For though there be no appearance of any stir, yet I say they will receive a terrible blow this parliament; and yet they shall not see who hurts them. This counsel is not to be contemned, because it may do you good, and can do you no harm. For the danger is past as soon as you have burned the letter." The contents of this mysterious letter surprised and puzzled

the nobleman to whom it was addressed; and though inclined to think it a foolish attempt to affright and ridicule him, yet he judged it safest to carry it to lord Salisbury, secretary-of-state. Lord Salisbury, too, was inclined to give little attention to it, yet thought proper to lay it before the king in council, who came to town a few days after. None of the council were able to make any thing of it, although it appeared serious and alarming. In the universal agitation between doubt and apprehension, the king was the first who penetrated the meaning of this dark epistle. He concluded that some sudden danger was preparing by gunpowder; and it was thought advisable to inspect all the vaults below both houses of parliament. This care belonged to the earl of Suffolk, lord-chamberlain, who purposely delayed the search till the day before the meeting of parliament, November 5, 1605. He remarked those great piles of fagots which lay in the vault under the house of peers, and seized a man preparing for the terrible enterprise, dressed in a cloak and boots, and a dark lantern in his hand. This was one Guy Fawkes, who had just disposed every part of the train for its taking fire the next morning, the matches and other combustibles being found in his pockets. The whole of the design was now discovered; but the atrociousness of his guilt, and the despair of pardon, inspiring him with resolution, he told the officers of justice, with an undaunted air, that had he blown them and himself up together he had been happy. Before the council he displayed the same intrepid firmness, mixed even with scorn and disdain, refusing to discover his associates, and shewing no concern but for the failure of his enterprise. But his bold spirit was, at length, subdued; being confined to the Tower for two or three days, and the rack just shewn him, his courage, fatigued with so long an effort, at last failed him, and he made a full discovery of all his accomplices.

GUNS, or KOEZEG, a small

HISTORY.

town of Hungary: though defended by a castle, and surrounded by a rampart and a ditch, it is a place of very little strength. Yet it withstood, with success, an obstinate siege from the Turks, in 1532.

GUSTAVUS I., king of Sweden, of the branch of Waza, was the son of Eric de Waza, duke of Gripsholm. Christiern II., king of Denmark, who made himself master of Sweden, in 1518, imprisoned him in the city of Copenhagen, and threatened him with death, but he escaped. He then retired to his own country. In the mean time, Christiern having defeated Steno, caused himself to be crowned at Stockholm, in 1520; but being expelled for his tyrannies, Gustavus was declared prince and governor of Sweden, and, afterwards, was elected king in 1523. He introduced the Lutheran faith into his kingdom, and died in 1560.

GURUDWARA, a town of Hindostan, province of Serinaguz. In the vicinity of this place was fought the last battle between the rajahs of Serinaguz and Nepal, in which the former was killed by a musket-ball, and the whole of his territory subjected to the Nepalese.

GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS, king of Sweden, succeeded Charles IX. in 1611, at the age of eighteen. In 1612, he assembled the states, and placed the chancellor Oxenstiern at the head of foreign and domestic affairs. The king himself took charge of the martial operations, and, in 1618, prosecuted the war against Denmark with such vigour and success, that, through the mediation of Great Britain and Holland, an advantageous peace was procured, by which the Danish monarch renounced all pretensions to the throne. He was equally successful with the Russians, who ceded the fine province of Livonia, and part of the province of Novogorod. His hostilities, however, with his cousin Sigismund, were of longer duration, and were productive of those glorious events which procured him a conspicuous rank among the most distinguished warriors of his time. The king of Poland could not forget the Swedish crown, of which

he had been deprived by the impolitic conduct of his father and himself. He formed a plot for seizing on Gustavus, who, however, avoided the snare. The Swedish monarch having prepared a numerous fleet, set sail, and laid siege to Riga, in 1621. Gustavus proved victorious, but allowed the besieged to capitulate on honourable terms. During a series of years, he was engaged in constant warfare, which afforded him opportunities of martializing the Swedes, and forming those intrepid commanders and formidable battalions, which long kept Europe in suspense. At length, in 1629, Gustavus gloriously terminated the war with Poland, and obtained a vast extent of territory. He did not, however, long enjoy the fruits of his victories in peace. The resentment which he bore to the emperor, and his ambition to curb the power of the house of Austria, determined him to march an army of 60,000 men into Germany, in 1630. He reduced Frankfort on the Oder, and various other places, and compelled the elector of Brandenburg to unite his troops with the Swedish battalions. He then invaded Saxony. In 1631, the imperialists awaited Gustavus at Leipsic, and formed an army of 40,000 men. The Swedish monarch led his troops to the attack, and, after an obstinate conflict, obtained a decisive victory. He then penetrated into Bavaria, and levied contributions on the opulent districts of Germany. The battle of Lutzen ensued, in 1632, on which seemed to depend the fate of Europe. The Swedish infantry achieved prodigies of valour, broke the line of the imperialists, and seized their cannon. Victory had already declared for the Swedes, when Gustavus was found stretched among the slain. His death plunged Sweden into the greatest affliction, but his triumphant bands for a time supported her reputation.

GUSTAVUS VASA, the deliverer of Sweden, one of the hostages sent by Steen Sture, to Christian II. king of Denmark. Promises

and threats were made to reconcile him to the despotic authority of the conqueror, but in vain: he was ordered to be strangled in prison, but Eric Banner, a Danish nobleman, who was charged with the commission, obtained its revocation, and was allowed to take him into custody, on condition of his keeping him a prisoner in the fortress of Calo, in Jutland, and paying 6,000 crowns if he should make his escape. Restraint, however, became more and more painful, especially after he heard of the massacre at Stockholm, in which his father and most of his relatives were involved. He escaped by a well-contrived stratagem, and disguising himself as a dealer in cattle, was suffered to pass unmolested to Lubeck. Banner followed him, and overtook him at Lubeck, but Gustavus promising to indemnify him in the loss of his ransom, departed for Sweden. The place where he first made himself known was Calmar. Here, however, he was disappointed in his expectations of soldiers and resources, and he retired in the disguise of a peasant.—He now wrote to his friends, but they refused to undertake so hazardous an attempt. He appealed to the peasants, but being repulsed by them, he proceeded to Dalecarlia. Attended by a confidential peasant, he travelled in disguise, and, at length, arrived in the mountains of Dalecarlia, where he met with a friend, with whom he had become acquainted at the university of Upsal. Being again discouraged, he took his way, through forests and mountains, and arrived at the house of a nobleman named Peterson. Gustavus having disclosed his design, the perfidious wretch entered into his plan, and, in the hope of a rich recompense, disclosed the whole to a Danish officer, who surrounded the house; but Peterson's wife, moved with compassion, apprised Gustavus of the perfidy of her husband, and he escaped to the house of a neighbouring clergyman. The young hero next departed for Mora, where he found the peasants prepared for his re-

ception, and who swore to revenge the massacre at Stockholm with the last drop of their blood. They now renounced their allegiance to Christian, and Gustavus assembled the most determined of his hearers, attacked the neighbouring castle, took it by storm, and put to the sword the commandant and all his Danes. The whole province now declared for Gustavus, and at the head of the brave Dalecarlians, he undertook the most perilous enterprises of war; and his efforts were invariably crowned with victory. Being engaged in besieging Stockholm, and the Danes sailing to the relief of the garrison, a sudden frost bound their vessels in ice at a distance from the port. Gustavus formed the bold resolution of burning the hostile fleet, and marched at the head of his troops, who grasped swords in one hand, and torches in the other. They endeavoured to scale the vessels, but the Danes commenced a tremendous discharge of cannon and musketry. Several of the ships were burnt, and abandoned by the contending parties. Soon after this heroic enterprise, the diet assembled, and Gustavus was proclaimed king of Sweden and of the two Gothlands, in 1523. His first exertion was directed towards the reformed doctrines of Lutheranism. In 1527, the Catholics, in order to divert the attention of Gustavus, prevailed on a peasant to personate Nils Sture, the son of the late administrator. He made his first attempt in Dalecarlia, but Gustavus soon checked his influence. In 1531, Christian made preparation for recovering his throne, and sailed with a fleet of thirty ships, and 10,000 men, to invade Sweden. This armament was, however, overtaken by storm, and the Swedes attacking his army near Bahus, defeated it, and obtained a great victory. In 1544, Gustavus prevailed on the states to render the throne hereditary in his family. He died in the seventy-first year of his age, from a slow fever. Thus died the great Gustavus Vasa; who, by his persevering virtue and patriotism, emancipated Sweden from tyranny and oppression. He

HISTORY.

encouraged commerce and the arts, rendered his people happy, and justly acquired the esteem of all Europe.

GUY DE LUSIGNAN, who became king of Jerusalem on the death of Baldwin V. He was despised for his crimes and his weakness. He murdered Patric, earl of Salisbury; and, when Henry II. banished him from the English dominions in France, the scene of the murder, he assumed the cross, and went to the Holy Land.

GYLIPRUS, a Lacedæmonian, sent B. C. 414, by his countrymen, to assist Syracuse, against the Athenians. He obtained a celebrated victory over Nicias and

Demosthenes, the enemy's generals, and obliged them to surrender. He accompanied Lysander in his expedition against Athens, and was present at the taking of that celebrated town. After the fall of Athens, he was intrusted by the conqueror with the money which had been taken in the plunder, which amounted to 1,500 talents. As he conveyed it to Sparta, he had the meanness to open the bottom of the bags which contained the treasure, and secreted about 300 talents. His theft was discovered; to avoid the punishment he fled from his country, and by this act tarnished the glory of his victorious actions.

H.

HAARLEM, HAERLEM, or HARLEM, a large city of the Netherlands. The most conspicuous event in the history of Haarlem is the dreadful siege which it sustained from the Spaniards in 1573; it held out for eight months, but was at last obliged to surrender: and the besiegers, after the capture, indulged in every kind of excess.

HABEAS CORPUS act passed, 1641, and May 27, 1679; suspended in 1715, for six months; 1716, for six months; 1722, for twelve months; 1744, for six months; 1779, for six months; 1794, 1795, 1798, 1799, and 1800, for nine months; in 1801, for six weeks; again, in 1803; from March 3, 1817, to July 1.

HALLE, a large town of the Prussian states, in Saxony. Halle was the scene of an obstinate conflict on the 17th of October, 1806, three days after the battle of Jena. A Prussian corps advancing under prince Eugene, of Wirtemberg, to join the main army, instead of retreating, on the news of the battle, unfortunately hazarded a contest with a superior force, and added to the vast number of prisoners which were made on that disastrous occasion.

HAMATH, a kingdom of ancient Syria, which, on the foundation of the kingdom of Damascus, became

subject to the kings of that city. The Hamathites were afterwards conquered and transplanted by Senacherib and Esar Haddon, kings of Assyria.

HAMBURGH, a commercial city in Germany, which stands on the Elbe. It was founded in the reign of Charlemagne, and was originally a fort called Hammenburg. In 1618, it was admitted into the number of imperial towns; subject to the counts of Holstein.—In 1768, however, the subjection was annulled, and Hamburgh was confirmed an independent city. In 1807, it was taken possession of by a large French garrison, and Bonaparte seized a part of its public funds. In 1810, it was incorporated into the French empire; in 1813, a memorable, but unsuccessful effort was made to cast off the French yoke. It was consequently subjected to an impost of two millions sterling; and the most positive orders were given to defend it, at whatever sacrifice, against the allies. This led to incalculable distress, to the destruction of the houses on the ramparts, to the seizure of considerable merchandize; and, finally, of the bank-funds, by Davoust. At last, the city was evacuated in May, 1814, and part of the bank-funds have been restored by the Bourbon government.

HAMILCAR, a Carthaginian general, surnamed Rhodanus. When the Athenians were afraid of Alexander, Hamilcar went to his camp, gained his confidence, and secretly transmitted an account of all his schemes to Athens.—A Carthaginian, whom the Syracusans called to their assistance against the tyrant Agathocles, who besieged their city. Hamilcar soon after favoured the interest of Agathocles, for which he was accused at Carthage. He died in Syracuse, B. C. 309.—A Carthaginian, surnamed Barcas, father to the celebrated Hannibal. He was general in Sicily during the first Punic war; and after a peace had been made with the Romans, quelled a rebellion of slaves, who had besieged Carthage, taken many towns of Africa, and rendered themselves so formidable to the Carthaginians that they begged and obtained assistance from Rome. After this, he passed into Spain with his son Hannibal, who was but nine years of age, and laid the foundation of the town of Barcelona. He was killed in a battle against the Vettones, B. C. 237. He had formed the plan of an invasion of Italy, by crossing the Alps, which his son afterwards carried into execution. His great enmity to the Romans was the cause of the second Punic war. He used to say of his three sons, that he kept three lions to devour the Roman power.

HAMILTON, (James, duke of,) was the eldest son of James, marquis of Hamilton, by lady Anne Cunningham, daughter of James, earl of Glencairn, and born in Scotland in 1606. He rose to high favour at court, but gained little credit by an expedition into Germany, to assist Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden, in 1630. When the troubles broke out in Scotland, the marquis had the command of the fleet, and, in 1643, was created a duke; but soon afterwards his loyalty became suspected, and he was sent prisoner to Pendennis-castle, and next to that of St. Michael's-mount, in Cornwall. There he remained till 1646, when he regained his liberty and went

to Scotland, where he was accused of having betrayed the king, and received a share of the money. To wipe off this disgrace he raised some forces, and entered England; but was defeated at Preston, in Lancashire, August 17, 1648, and sent to Windsor-castle. After a summary trial before Bradshaw, he was sentenced to be beheaded, which was put into execution March 9, 1648-9. His brother, William, who succeeded him in the title, was mortally wounded at the battle of Worcester, September 3, 1651.

HAMILTON, (George,) earl of Orkney, was the fifth son of the earl of Selkirk. He entered early into the army, and distinguished himself at the battle of the Boyne, as well as in several other actions and sieges, for which William III. made him a peer, in 1696. In 1704, he was at the battle of Blenheim, where his division captured 1300 French officers, and 12,000 soldiers. After various services in Marlborough's campaigns, particularly at the battle of Malplaquet, he was sworn of the privy-council, and made field-marshal. He died in 1737.

HAMILTON, of Bothwellhaugh, one of the prisoners who escaped after the battle of Langside, and who suffered the most barbarous treatment from Murray, regent of Scotland: by way of retribution, he shot him as he was passing through the High-street, of Linlithgow. The deed was no sooner done than Hamilton escaped by a back-way from the house where he was concealed, and, mounting his horse, rode off without being pursued. He was sent by Charles I. into Scotland, against the covenants; and, with a formidable fleet, with 5000 chosen troops on-board, he arrived in the frith of Forth, and made himself master of Inchkeith and Inchcolm, two small islands which the covenanters had neglected to fortify. But his weak conduct altogether frustrated the purposes for which the fleet had been equipped. He was at length committed to prison, but soon after regained his liberty, and was appointed to the command

HISTORY.

of some Scotch forces in support of the royalist party. In the first encounter with Cromwell, however, his army was defeated, and himself taken prisoner. His death soon followed that of his sovereign.

HAMM, a small town of Prussian Westphalia. On the 16th of July, 1761, the French were defeated between this and the village of Flielinghausen, by the allies: the town received great injury on that occasion, from bombs and red-hot balls.

HAMPDEN, or HAMDEN, (John), a political character, was born in London, of a Buckinghamshire family, in 1594. He obtained a seat in the second parliament of Charles I., but made no figure till the year 1636, when his resistance to the tax called ship-money, drew upon him the eyes of all men, and he became the leading champion of the disaffected. He was one of the first who took up arms against the king; and it is not a little remarkable, that he fell in the very same field where he mustered the militia, near Brill, in Buckinghamshire, June 18, 1643. Lord Clarendon's character of him is that which Sallust gave of Catiline: "He had a head to contrive, a tongue to persuade, and a hand to execute any mischief."

HANAN, a considerable town of Hesse-Cassel. In 1792, Hanan was attacked, but not occupied by the French; it was entered by them, in 1793, in 1797, and afterwards in 1805. In the end of October, 1813, an Austrian and Bavarian corps opposed the great army of the French, in their retreat from Leipzig: a sanguinary conflict took place, in which the Bavarians were defeated, and the flying army effected its retreat.

HANGO-UDD, a promontory of Russia, in the government of Finland. A sea-fight took place here between the Swedish and Russian fleets, in 1714, at which the czar was present and obtained a complete victory.

HANGWELL, a town and fortress of the island of Ceylon, belonging to the British. In the year 1803, it was attacked by the king of Candy, with a numerous

army; but the garrison defended themselves with much bravery and resolution, and compelled him to retreat with great loss.

HANNIBAL, a celebrated Carthaginian general, son of Hamilcar. He was educated in his father's camp, and inured from his early years to the labours of the field. He passed into Spain when nine years old, and at the request of his father, took a solemn oath that he never would be at peace with the Romans. After his father's death, he was appointed over the cavalry in Spain; and some time after, upon the death of Asdrubal, he was invested with the command of all the armies of Carthage, though not yet in the twenty-fifth year of his age. In three years of continual success, he subdued all the nations of Spain which opposed the Carthaginian power, and took Saguntum after a siege of eight months. This city was in alliance with the Romans, and its fall was the cause of the second Punic war, which Hannibal prepared to support with all the courage and prudence of the consummate general. He levied three large armies, one he sent to Africa; he left another in Spain, and marched at the head of the third towards Italy. This army some have calculated at 20,000 foot, and 6,000 horse; others say that it consisted of 100,000 foot, and 20,000 horse. He came to the Alps, which were deemed nearly inaccessible; after much trouble, he gained the summit in nine days. He conquered the uncivilized inhabitants that opposed his passage, and after the loss of 30,000 men, he was opposed by the Romans as soon as he entered Italy. He defeated P. Corn. Scipio and Sempronius, near the Rhone, the Po, and the Trebia, crossed the Apennines and invaded Etruria. He defeated the army of the consul Flaminius near the lake Trasymenus, and soon after met the two consuls C. Terentius and L. Æmilius at Cannæ. His army consisted of 40,000 foot, and 10,000 horse, when he engaged the Romans at the celebrated battle of

Canna. (See *Canna*.) The slaughter was so great that no less than 45,000 Romans were killed, and the conqueror made a bridge with the dead carcasses; and, as a sign of his victory, he sent to Carthage three bushels of gold rings which had been taken from 5600 Roman knights slain in the battle. Had Hannibal, immediately after the battle, marched his army to the gates of Rome, it must have yielded amidst the general consternation, if we believe the opinions of some writers; but his delay gave the enemy spirit and boldness, and when at last he approached the walls, he was informed that the piece of ground on which his army then stood, was selling at a high price in the Roman forum. After hovering for some time round the city, he retired to Capua, where the Carthaginian soldiers soon forgot to conquer in the pleasures and riot of that luxurious city. From that circumstance it has been said, and with propriety, that "Capua was a Cannæ to Hannibal." After the battle of Cannæ the Romans became more cautious, and when the dictator Fabius Maximus had defied the artifice as well as the valour of Hannibal, they began to look for better times. Marcellus, who succeeded Fabius in the field, first taught the Romans that Hannibal was not invincible. After many important debates in the senate, it was decreed, that war should be carried into Africa, to remove Hannibal from the gates of Rome; and Scipio, who was first proposer of the plan, was empowered to put it into execution. When Carthage saw the enemy on her coasts, she recalled Hannibal from Italy; and that great general is said to have left, with tears in his eyes, a country which, during sixteen years, he had kept under continual alarms, and which he could almost call his own. He and Scipio met near Carthage, and after a parley, in which neither would give the preference to his enemy, they determined to come to a general engagement. The battle was fought near Zama: Scipio made a great

slaughter of the enemy; 20,000 were killed, and the same number made prisoners. Hannibal, after he had lost the day, fled to Adrumetum. Soon after this decisive battle, the Romans granted peace to Carthage on hard conditions; and afterwards Hannibal, who was jealous and apprehensive of the Roman power, fled to Syria, to king Antiochus, whom he advised to make war against Rome, and lead an army into the heart of Italy. Antiochus distrusted the fidelity of Hannibal, and was conquered by the Romans, who granted him peace on the condition of his delivering their mortal enemy into their hands. Hannibal, who was apprized of this, left the court of Antiochus, and fled to Prusias, king of Bithynia. He encouraged him to declare war against Rome, and even assisted him in weakening the power of Eumenes, king of Pergamus, who was in alliance with the Romans. The senate received intelligence that Hannibal was in Bithynia, and immediately sent ambassadors, amongst whom was L. Q. Flaminius, to demand him of Prusias. The king was unwilling to betray Hannibal and violate the laws of hospitality, but at the same time dreaded the power of Rome. Hannibal extricated him from his embarrassment, and when he heard that his house was besieged on every side, and all means of escape fruitless, he took a dose of poison, which he always carried with him in a ring on his finger, and as he breathed his last, exclaimed, *Solvamus dtuturnâ curâ populum Romanum, quando mortem senis expectare longum censet.* He died in his seventieth year, about eighteen years B. C.

HANNO, a Carthaginian general, conquered in Spain by Scipio, and sent to Rome. He was son of Bomilcar, whom Hannibal sent privately over the Rhone to conquer the Gauls. This name was common to many Carthaginians who signalized themselves among their countrymen during the Punic wars against Rome, and in their wars against the Sicilians.

HANOVER. Though this is the

HISTORY.

last family raised to the electoral dignity, it may vie with any in Germany for nobleness and antiquity. The house of Brunswick is lineally descended from Cajus Actius, a noble Roman of the city of Este, in Venetian Lombardy, who afterwards became prince of Este. Otho the second, surnamed the Infant, was created the first duke of Brunkswick Luneberg, by the emperor Frederic II. in 1239. Ernest Augustus, duke of Brunswick Hanover, received the dignity of an elector of the holy Roman empire on the 19th of Dec. 1692, in consideration of the assistance which he had given the emperor Leopold against Louis XIV.; but, in consequence of a violent opposition from the electoral college, and the college of princes, it was not confirmed to him and his heirs-male till the 30th of January, 1708. However, before it was proclaimed an electorate, this country numbered thirty-four princes from the end of the tenth century. George Louis, the eldest son and successor of Ernest Augustus, the first elector. He attended his father and uncle with the army of the Moselle, and participated in all the dangers to which they exposed themselves in the battle and siege of Triers. He married his cousin-german, the only daughter of the duke of Zelle; and the issue of this marriage was George the Second, king of Great Britain. On the death of the duke of Gloucester, king William recommended to the parliament of England, to regulate the succession of the crown; in consequence of which, by the act of settlement, the electress Sophia was declared next in succession after king William and the princess Anne, in default of their issue. The princess Sophia did not live long enough to enjoy the crown which was intended for her. Her death was followed soon after by that of the queen; upon which the elector ascended the throne of England, over which he reigned nearly thirteen years. He died on his way to Hanover. The electoral dignity has ever since belonged to the kings of England. When

Napoleon had obtained dominion over almost the whole continent in 1811, Hanover became an integral part of the kingdom of Westphalia, which had been formed of provinces ceded by Prussia, and others in the possession of France, and of which Jerome Bonaparte, brother of Napoleon, was the new sovereign. On the liberation of Germany from the yoke of France, the Hanoverians gave proofs of the most unalterable affection and loyalty to their legitimate sovereign. Hanover was erected into a kingdom in 1814; and by a general diet of the states, a constitution was adopted on the plan of a representative government. Hanover, its capital, suffered severely during its occupation by the French from 1803 to 1813; but was relieved from their presence by the arrival of Bernadotte, with an allied force, on the 6th of November of the latter year.

HARBOROUGH, or **MARKET-HARBOROUGH**; a town of England, in Leicestershire. The headquarters of the army of Charles I. seem to have been in this place, previous to the memorable battle of Naseby; and Cromwell's letter to the speaker of the House of Commons, giving an account of the battle, is dated here.

HARDICANUTE, who was supported by earl Godwin and the English, and disputed the sovereignty of England with Harold, supported by the Danes. On the news of the death of Harold, he immediately set sail for London, where he was received in triumph, and acknowledged king without opposition. He did not long, however, retain the affections of the English: he revived the tax of Danegelt, which consisted of a shilling on every hide of land. In some parts of England, the inhabitants resisted this odious tax. Hardicanute expired at the nuptials of a Danish lord, in 1041.

HARFLEUR, a small town of Normandy, is frequently mentioned in history, and was taken by the English in 1415, and 1446.

HARLAN, a place of Scotland, in Aberdeenshire, where a great battle was fought in 1411, between

the royal forces under the earl of Mar, and the forces of Donald, lord of the Isles.

HARLEY (Robert,) earl of Oxford and Mortimer, was the son of sir Edward Harley, and born in London, Dec. 5, 1661. At the Revolution he was returned to the House of Commons for Tregony, in Cornwall; in 1690, he was chosen one of the commissioners for stating the public accounts; and, in 1694, was ordered to bring in a bill for the frequent meeting of parliaments. In 1702, he was chosen speaker, which office he held while secretary-of-state; he resigned the latter place in 1708. In 1710, he was constituted one of the commissioners of the treasury, and chancellor of the exchequer. On the 8th of March, that year, he was stabbed by the marquis of Giscard, a French papist, when under examination at the council-board. The assassin died in prison; and Mr. Harley, on his recovery, received the congratulations of the House of Commons. The year following he was advanced to the peerage, and made lord-high-treasurer; which office he resigned a few days before the death of queen Anne, in 1714. The next year he was impeached by the House of Commons of high-treason, and committed to the Tower, where he was kept two years, and then, after a public trial, was acquitted. He died May 21, 1724.

HAROLD, king of England, was the son of Canute, the first of the name, by Algiwa of Northampton, his first wife. On the death of Canute, he was proclaimed king of England, in 1036. Godwin earl of Kent, the Londoners, and the West Saxons, declared themselves for Hardicanute, the late king's son by his second wife Emma; but he being then in Denmark, Harold prevailed: the kingdom was, however, divided; the west and south part being reserved by Emma for Hardicanute, till his return. Harold having now the power in his own hands, and being possessed of his father's treasure at Winchester, set about securing the whole kingdom. To get his two

half-brothers, Edward and Alfred, into his power, he forged a letter, in the name of their mother Emma, inviting them into England: this letter was sent to the young prince then in Normandy. Alfred, the younger brother, came over, but had no sooner landed, than he fell into the hands of earl Godwin, who brought him prisoner to London; he was carried bound to Ely, had his eyes put out, and being delivered to the monks of Ely, died soon afterwards in their custody. Harold died in the fifth year of his reign. He was succeeded by Hardicanute. Harold, the second, king of England, succeeded Edward the Confessor, A. D. 1066. The first disturber of Harold's peace was his brother Tosti, who envying his advancement to the crown, came from Flanders with some ships, and infested the coast of Hampshire and Sussex, laying the Isle of Wight under contribution. But hearing that forces were preparing against him, he turned his course towards Lincolnshire, where he committed some outrages; yet was soon forced to quit the country, and seek for shelter at the court of Malcolm king of Scots. In the reign of king Edward, Harold having been at the court of William duke of Normandy, is said to have promised to deliver him Dover castle, and to use his utmost endeavour to procure him the kingdom after Edward's decease. On this the duke's daughter, then too young for marriage, was betrothed to him; the duke hearing afterwards that Harold had taken possession of the crown, sent ambassadors to remind him of his promise. The duke being incensed on receiving an equivocal message, resolved to get by force what he could not by fair means. Accordingly, he fitted out a great fleet at St. Valery, and raised a choice army to invade England. Harold hearing of it, made preparations to resist him; but whilst he was thus providing against duke William, Harold Harfager, king of Norway, appeared at the mouth of the Tyne with a powerful navy, which earl Tosti having joined with his

ships, set sail with all speed, and entered the river Humber, whence turning into the Ouse, they landed; and, having reached York, took it by storm. Harold with all his forces marched, gave them battle, and cut off the greatest part of them, with Harfager their king, and Tosti his own brother; the rest surrendering themselves, he allowed them to depart with twenty ships, on oath never to return as enemies, and left hostages for the performance of their promise. Duke William, in the meantime, lay with a fleet of 900 sail ready at St. Valery, and waited only for a favourable wind. At last he landed near Hastings, in Sussex, September 8th, 1066. The ever-memorable battle of Hastings ensued, in which a fatal arrow determined the victory on the Norman side, killing Harold, after he had maintained the contest with extraordinary courage. This was the termination of the Saxon monarchy in England, which had continued for more than 600 years. (See *Battle of Hastings*.)

HARRISON, colonel, a furious enthusiast, was appointed to conduct Charles I. to London previous to his public trial. He was a member of the high court of justice before which the king was arraigned, and by which, after a mock trial, sentence was pronounced against him.

HARUN AL RASHID, one of the most celebrated of the Abbassides, succeeded Musa al Hadi, in the caliphate, A. D. 786. In the following year the Arabs made an irruption into the territories of Charlemagne, and defeated the Christian army sent by that prince to oppose them. In 798, Al Rashid sent Al Hasheim into Egypt to preside over the government of that country. In 795, he set out from Bagdad on his pilgrimage to Mecca, when, it is said, the roads through which he passed were covered with rich carpets and the most valuable stuffs. In 806, Al Rashid marched into the imperial provinces with an army of 135,000 men. He first laid siege to Heraclæ, which place he took, and reduced to ashes; after which con-

quest he made himself master of several other towns. He next made a descent upon the island of Cyprus, the people of which he pillaged and plundered without mercy. This success so intimidated Charlemagne, that he sent a tribute, and concluded a peace with Al Rashid. In the following year he marched with his forces against Al Laith, to the frontiers of Jordan, where being taken ill, he resigned the command of his army to his son Al Mamum, and retired to Tus in Khorassan. His spirit failing him, and his malady increasing, he died three days afterwards, and was buried there. Al Rashid exercised great humanity, and distinguished himself by his liberality in the encouragement of the arts and civilization. He is said to have gone nine times on pilgrimages to Mecca, when he was caliph. He greatly promoted literature; and excelled in writing Arab poetry. He died in 806, and was succeeded in the caliphate by his son Al Amin.

HASTENBECK, a village of Hanover, in the principality of Calenberg, near which the French, under Marshal d'Estrées, defeated the duke of Cumberland, on the 25th July, 1757.

HASTINGS, (Warren,) was born in 1733, at or near Daylesford, in Worcestershire. He was sent to India as a writer in the company's service in 1750. On his arrival in the east, he applied with diligence to the duties of his station, and at his leisure studied the oriental languages. After fourteen years residence in Bengal, he returned to England; but in 1769 he went out as second in council at Madras, where he remained about two years, and then removed to the presidency of Calcutta. This was a critical period, and the state of Hindostan soon became perilous from the increasing power of Hyder Ally, the sovereign of Mysore, and the intrigues of the French, who were taking advantage of the rupture between Great Britain and her colonies. In this exigency the governor-general had to depend solely upon his own exertions; and he succeeded beyond all expecta-

son, in saving British India from a combination of enemies. Notwithstanding this, party-spirit at home turned the merit of Mr. Hastings into a crime, and charges were brought against him in parliament. He returned, in 1786, and an impeachment followed, which, in all its stages, lasted nine years, and ended in his acquittal. After this he led a retired life on the wreck of his fortune, and an annuity from the company. He lived, however, to see his plans for the security of India publicly applauded; but he received no other compensation for the injury he had sustained, than that of being sworn a member of the privy-council. He died Aug. 22, 1818.

HASTINGS. (Battle of) between Harold and William duke of Normandy. William sailed from St. Valery with his army, and landed at Bambergh, in Sussex, on the 29th September, 1066. When he had completed, unmolested, the disembarkation of his troops and warlike equipage, he marched along the shore as far as Hastings, where he constructed a fortress. Harold was in the north when the invasion took place, and on receiving the news hastened southward to resist the duke; and William, on being informed that he had marched to London, sent ambassadors again to require him to resign the crown. They were as fruitless as his former desires, which ostensibly brought him to England. In the meantime, the English army was advancing, and augmenting as it came towards the coast, insomuch that the Normans began to show symptoms of apprehension, and William made overtures to negotiate. But Harold was infatuated and consigned to ruin; his answer to the messengers, for the two armies were at the time in sight of each other, was, "let your master know that God will determine to-morrow on the justice of our rights." The English spent the night singing, and carousing, confident of victory. The Normans earnestly prepared for battle, and offered up prayers for success. On the 14th of October, the birth-day of Harold, but much more memorable for one of the

greatest events that ever happened in England, the two armies engaged. The Normans were drawn up in three bodies. Montgomery and Fitzosborne commanded the first, Geoffrey Mortel commanded the second, and the duke himself headed the reserve. The battle began on the part of the invaders, who sent up a volley of arrows, which rose over the van of the English like a cloud, and fell on their compact ranks like deadly hail. A slight disorder ensued, and the Normans, taking the advantage, attacked them vigorously. But the English immediately recovering, gave them so fierce a return, that they were obliged to pause and take breath. Quickly after they, however, renewed the attack, but were again bravely resisted. The pride of the English was now fired, and the Normans were ashamed to retreat; a dreadful conflict ensued, and both sides fought desperately, without giving or gaining ground. It was hand to hand, and man to man; but the cause of Harold against glory and avarice. The fight began at seven o'clock and lasted till the evening, when William had recourse to a stratagem that decided the fate of England. Seeing the English squadrons standing like impregnable redoubts, he gave orders to his men to retreat as they fought, but to keep their ranks in order. The English, on perceiving this, hailed it with shouts, as the beginning of their victory. They pressed on eagerly; their eagerness occasioned disorder; the Normans halted, and, closing their ranks, stood like rocks in a torrent, and made dreadful slaughter. But a large body of infantry rallied round the king on a rising ground, and received the Normans, who advanced to attack them, with extraordinary spirit. In this crisis, Harold was slain by an arrow shot into his brains; his troops disheartened by this calamity, fell into disorder and began to take flight. They were pursued, as long as the day-light lasted, and a hideous slaughter was made of the fugitives. In this battle, William had three horses killed under him. The loss of the Normans was estimated at six thousand, that of

HISTORY.

the English was more considerable. When the signal of victory was sounded, the duke, now at the height of his wishes, gave orders for the whole army to fall on their knees, and return thanks to God for the victory. On the following morning he ordered the Normans to bury their companions, and the English peasants had also leave to do the same for their countrymen. The bodies of Harold and his brothers being found, were honourably conveyed to their mother, by whom they were interred, in Waltham-abbey. It has, however, been said, that Harold's corpse was not found, and that he was not slain in the battle; but, escaping from the field, retired to a cell near St. John's-church, Chester, and died there an anchorite, as was owned by himself in his last confession, when he was dying.

HATFIELD, a village of England, famous for the battle fought there in 633, by Edwin, the first Christian king of Northumbria, against Cadwallo, king of Wales, and Penda, king of Mercia; and in which, after a very sanguinary conflict, the Northumbrians were defeated.

HATRASS, a fort and town of Hindostan, province of Agra. It was invested on the 12th February, 1817, by the British, and Dyaram, the zemindar, or landholder, summoned to deliver it up; but he determined to stand the siege. Persuasion being tried in vain, batteries were therefore erected against it, and a tremendous fire opened, both against the fort and town: they soon yielded.

HAVANNAH, (*See Cuba*.)

HAWKE, (Edward, lord,) a gallant admiral, was the son of Edward Hawke, esq. barrister-at-law. He was born in 1713, and at the age of twelve, went to sea as a midshipman, in the fleet under sir Charles Wager. In 1734, he was appointed to the command of the *Wolf*, and, in 1744, he distinguished himself by breaking the French line, in the action of Matthews and Lestock, off Toulon. As this, however, was done without orders, he was broke, but had his commission

restored by the king. In 1747, he was made admiral of the white, and the same year captured seven French men-of-war out of a squadron of nine, for which he received the honour of the Bath. The next year he was raised to the blue, and, in 1755, appointed vice-admiral of the white. November 20, 1759, he gained a great victory over the French fleet, commanded by M. Conflans, in Quiberon bay, though it was a lee-shore, and the sea ran high, in the midst of a storm. The service, therefore, was particularly hazardous, and when the pilot represented it to the admiral, sir Edward said, "You have done your duty; and now you are to comply with my order, in laying me alongside the *Soleil Royal*," the ship of Conflans. In 1765, sir Edward was appointed first lord of the admiralty, and in 1776 raised to the peerage. He died October 14, 1781.

HAWKINS, (sir John,) a naval commander, was born at Plymouth, about 1520. In 1562 he undertook a voyage to Africa, where he began the slave-trade, and for which he received a coat of arms, as the benefactor of his country. In 1573 he was made treasurer of the navy; and, in 1588, he was appointed rear-admiral in the *Victory*, to act against the Spanish Armada; for his conduct on this occasion he was knighted. He died in 1595. His son, sir Richard Hawkins, distinguished himself also as a naval officer, in several voyages to the coast of America; but, in 1593, he was taken by the Spaniards on the coast of Peru, and kept in confinement about two years. He died in 1622.

HAWKWOOD, (sir John,) a person of mean extraction; but, enlisting as a soldier, he distinguished himself so greatly, that he received the honour of knighthood, and acquired considerable property as well as rank. He and his officers offered their services to the Florentines, on account of the great losses they had sustained by the money they had so generously lent to the English. But their demands being too high, the Florentines rejected them, and they were

obliged to enter into the service of Vesa. The Pisans and English defeated the Florentines at Ancisa, in 1364, and spread terror and consternation wherever they went. Hawkwood, by his unparalleled successes, proved himself the ablest commander of that age: after a series of exploits, which rendered him the scourge of the Florentines, he was engaged in their service, and became their saviour. His death, in 1394, was to them an irrecoverable blow.

HAWLEY, general, was defeated by the Pretender at the battle of Falkirk, but defeated him at the battle of Culloden. (See *Culloden*.)

HEGIRA, the Mohammedan epoch, or computation from the flight of Mohammed, from Mecca to Medina, A. D. 622, which, after the lapse of twelve centuries, still discriminates the lunar year of the Mohammedan nations.

HEIDENHEIM, a small town of Wirttemberg, on the Brenz, at Neresheim. Near this, was fought an obstinate but indecisive action between the French and Austrian armies, in 1796, in the first advance of Moreau from the Rhine.

HELDER, a small town of North Holland. Near this place, admiral Van Tromp was killed in a naval engagement, in 1653. The Helder was taken by the British, under sir R. Abercrombie, on the 28th of August, 1799, and remained in our possession during that short and unfortunate campaign. It was near the Helder that the surrender of the Dutch took place, at the time already mentioned.

HELIOGABALUS, (M. Aurelius Antoninus,) a Roman emperor, son of Varius Marcellus, called Heliogabalus. After the death of Macrinus he was invested with the imperial purple; and the senate, however unwilling to submit to a youth only fourteen years of age, approved of his election, and bestowed upon him the title of Augustus. Heliogabalus made his grandmother Mæsa, and his mother Bæmias, his colleagues on the throne; and to bestow more dignity upon the sex, he chose a senate of women, over which his

mother presided, and prescribed all the modes and fashions which prevailed in the empire. Rome, however, soon displayed a scene of cruelty and debauchery; the imperial palace was full of prostitution, and the most infamous of the populace became the favourites of the prince. Such licentiousness soon displeased the populace, and Heliogabalus, unable to appease the seditions of his soldiers, whom his rapacity and debaucheries had irritated, hid himself in the filth and excrements of the camp, where he was found in the arms of his mother. His head was severed from his body the 10th of March, A. D. 222, in the eighteenth year of his age, after a reign of three years, nine months, and four days. He was succeeded by Alexander Severus. His cruelties were as conspicuous as his licentiousness. He burthened his subjects with the most oppressive taxes, his halls were covered with carpets of gold and silver tissue, and his mats were made with the down of hares, and with the soft feathers which were found under the wings of partridges. He was fond of covering his shoes with precious stones, to draw the admiration of the people as he walked along the streets, and he was the first Roman who ever wore a dress of silk. He often invited the most common of the people to share his banquets, and made them sit down on large bellows full of wind, which, by suddenly emptying themselves, threw the guests on the ground, and left them a prey to wild beasts. He tied some of his favourites on a large wheel, and was particularly delighted to see them whirled round like lions, and sometimes suspended in the air, or sunk beneath the water. * HELIOPOLIS, battle of, between the French and the Turks, in the celebrated Egyptian campaign in March, 1800. Both forces being drawn out in order of battle, a furious and dreadful engagement ensued. The Turks, however, were thrown into disorder, and their whole army, consisting of 40,000 men, betook themselves to flight in all directions;

HISTORY.

the camp was abandoned, and the rout became general. The Turks had 8,000 men killed or wounded, whilst the loss of the French, under Kieher, whose army amounted only to 15,000, was comparatively trifling.

HENGIST, the first Saxon king of Kent, about the end of the fifth century; who, being intreated by Vortigern, king of the Britons, to assist him against the Scots and Picts, had first the isle of Thanet given him. His assistance proving effectual, and having now a footing in the island, he invited his countrymen to come and share his good success. The Saxons, accordingly, flocked hither in great numbers, and were entertained without suspicion, on the terms that they should keep off the Picts. Thanet soon became thickly peopled; and Vortigern gave Hengist the whole province of Kent, for which Hengist gave him his daughter. Soon after this, Hengist, encroaching on the king's favour, leaguings with Veta and Ebbssa, sailed with forty ships, and gained possession of Northumberland. The Britons endeavoured to drive them out, but having made a league with the Picts and Scots, the Saxons issued out of Kent, and wasted the whole land, as far as the western coast, with little or no resistance. Soon after this the greater part of the Saxon forces returned home. This encouraged the Britons, under the conduct of Vortimer, the king's son, to fall upon the rest of them. Hengist died in the year 419.

HENNERSDORF, a town of Saxony. In 1757, the Prussians were defeated here by the Austrians, and lost their commander, general Winterfield.

HENRY I., king of France, was crowned at Rheims, in 1027, and began his reign July 20, 1031. His mother, Constance, endeavoured to set up Robert, his younger brother; but, with the assistance of Robert II., duke of Normandy, he defeated the queen's army, and obliged his brother to content himself with the dukedom of Burgundy. In his time Pope Leo IX. held a council at Rheims

in France, and the Normans, headed by Robert Guichard, took Naples and Sicily from the Saracens. He died August 4, 1066.—**HENRY II.**, son of Francis I., was crowned July 25, 1547. He commanded his father's army in 1557, in Piedmont, with great success against the Imperialists, and took Susa and Veilane, &c.; he took Boulogne in Picardy from the English, protected the German princes against the emperor, and marched to the banks of the Rhine, in 1552. The emperor making peace with the princes, besieged Metz afterwards with 10,000 men, but was repulsed by the Duke of Guise, in 1558. At last, after several battles, with various success, they made peace. Philip II., king of Spain, joining in a league with the English, brought 40,000 men into Picardy, and defeated 15,000 French at the battle of St. Quentin, in 1557. The French were also defeated at Gravelin. The French repaired their losses by the capture of Guines, Thionville, &c. and Calais from the English, in 1565, who had held it since the reign of Philip de Valois, in 1347. A peace was made in 1559, when 106 places were surrendered to the enemy, in lieu of St. Quentin, Ham, and Le Catelet. Henry was wounded in the eye by a splinter from a lance, at a tournament, June 29, 1549, and died a few days after.—**HENRY III.** was christened Edward Alexander, 1551, but took the name of Henry when he was Duke of Anjou. He signalized himself in several battles against the Protestants. He was elected king of Poland, May 9, 1573, whilst besieging Rochelle, and was crowned at Cracow, Feb. 15, following; but, three months after, hearing of his brother Charles IX.'s death, he returned from Poland secretly, and went through Austria and Venice, and was crowned at Rheims, February 15, 1575. He died August 12, 1589.—**HENRY IV.**, called the Great, was born in 1553, and was son to Anthony of Bourbon, duke of Vendôme. After the massacre of St. Bartholomew, he signalized himself against the leaguers, and Henry III. dying, he succeeded

him, taking the title of king of France and Navarre. His enemies endeavoured in vain to make cardinal de Bourbon king, under the name of Charles X. In 1589, with 4,000 men, he defeated 30,000 commanded by the duke of Mayenne, and, in 1590, with 1,200 men, routed 16,000. He also signalized himself in several other battles, and besieged Paris, which held out at the instigation of the Spaniards. He was afterwards crowned at Chartres. He defeated 16,000 Spaniards in Burgundy, 1594, with 1,500 men, took Amiens, and reduced the leaguers to their duty, whom he generously pardoned. The duke de Biron's execution, in 1602, was the only example of just severity in his reign; and France had enjoyed peace for ten years, when Ravillac, with a knife, stabbed the king in his coach at Paris, May 14, 1610, the day after the queen's coronation. (See *Ravillac*.)

HENRY I. of that name, emperor of Germany, son of Otho, duke of Saxony, succeeded Conrade his brother-in-law, in 919. He reduced Arnould duke of Bavaria, and vanquished the Hungarians, Bohemians, Sclavonians, and Danes in 931. He took the kingdom of Lorrain from Charles the Simple, defeated the Hungarians a second time, and killed 8,000 of their men. He died of an apoplexy in 936 or 97.—**HENRY II.** surnamed the *Lame*, was duke of Bavaria, and son of Henry the Short of Saxony; he was elected in 1002. He reduced some German princes who opposed his election; defeated Boleslaus duke of Bohemia, and Boleslaus king of Poland, and routed the duke of Bavaria in 1010. He defeated the Henetians, who had renounced christianity, and made them tributaries, and having pacified Germany went into Italy, took some places in Calabria, and defeated Arduin created king by a party of the Lombards. Being taken prisoner in this war, he leaped from a high wall, broke his leg, and was afterwards lame. In 1022, he went again into Italy, defeated the Greeks and Saracens, and took Beneventum, Naples, Capua, Salernum, &c. He died in

1024, and was buried at Bamberg.—**HENRY III.** of Franconia, surnamed the *Black*, succeeded Conrade II. in 1056. He defeated the Bohemians that denied him tribute in his second campaign, restored Peter to his throne of Hungary, whence his subjects had chased him in 1043. He reduced the petty princes of Italy, and made war on the Hungarians. He died at Bottenfeld, in Saxony, being choked with a piece of bread in 1056.—**HENRY IV.** was born in 1051, and succeeded his father Henry the *Black* in 1056. In 1063 he defeated the Saxons, who had rebelled under the conduct of Otho. He died at Liege, August 7, 1106, aged 56.—**HENRY V.** surnamed the *Young*, succeeded his father in 1106. He married Maud, daughter of Henry I. of England. In 1125 he invaded France without success, and died in the same year.—**HENRY VI.** of Suabia, surnamed the *Severe*, son of Frederick Barbarossa, was chosen emperor of Germany in 1190, and married Constantia, the king of Sicily's daughter, in whose right he afterward possessed that kingdom. In 1196 he obliged the princes of the empire to elect his son Frederic king of the Romans, though only three years old. Afterwards he went into Italy with a strong army, and was so cruel there that his wife, being offended at his severity to some of her relations, took up arms against him, and confined him in a castle. He died in Sicily, 1197.—**HENRY VII.** duke of Luxembourg, elected in 1308, on the death of Albert I. He was crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle, 1309. He died near Sienna, in 1313. He was said to have been poisoned by Bernard Politian, a dominican friar.

HENRY I. king of Castile, surnamed the *Good*, son of Alfonsus IX., by Eleanor of England, succeeded his father in 1214, being seven or eight years of age. He was killed by the fall of a tile, while playing in a tower, 1217.—**HENRY II.** called *De la Merced*, was the natural son of Alfonsus XI. and headed the people in their insurrection against Peter, his brother,

HISTORY.

justly called the Cruel. He overcame Henry, who fled into France, from whence he was assisted by Charles V. and subdued all Castile. Nevertheless, Peter was re-established in 1367, and Henry routed by the help of the English. Henry, however, was called in again, and, assisted by the French, pursued Peter as far as Montiel castle, where he put him to death in 1369.—HENRY III. succeeded his father, 1390, being but eleven years old. He suppressed his rebellious subjects, and repulsed the kings of Portugal and Grenada, but did not live to see the success of his army against the Moors. He died at Toledo, at twenty-seven years of age, 1406.

HENRY I. king of England, surnamed Beauclerc, was born in 1068, and succeeded his brother, William Rufus, in 1100. He married Matilda, daughter of Malcolm, king of Scots, in the same year. Soon after this, his brother Robert returned from abroad, and laid claim to the crown of England. In 1105, Henry invaded Normandy with a strong army; took some of the principal towns; and a battle ensuing, Robert was overthrown, taken prisoner, and sent to England. In 1109, he betrothed his daughter Maude to the emperor of Germany. In 1117, he was challenged by Louis of France; and he lost his queen, May 1, 1119. In 1120, he conveyed his son to Normandy, to receive the homage of the barons of that duchy; on his return, he set sail for Barfleur, and was soon out of sight. The prince being detained by some accident, the sailors, and their captain Fitzstephen, having spent the interval in drinking, became so disorderly that they ran the ship upon a rock, and it was dashed to pieces. The prince was put into a boat, but hearing the cries of Maude, his natural sister, he prevailed on the sailors to row back and take her in. The approach of the boat giving several others the hope of saving their lives, numbers leaped in, and the whole went to the bottom. Above 140 young noblemen, of the principal families of England and Normandy, were

lost on this occasion. A butcher of Rouen was the only person on-board who escaped. Fitzstephen, the captain, while the butcher was thus buffeting the waves for his life, swam up to him, and inquired if the prince was yet living; when, being told that he had perished, Then I will not out-live him, said the captain, and immediately sunk to the bottom. The shrieks of these unfortunate people were heard on the shore; and the noise even reached the king's ship, but the cause was then unknown. Henry entertained hopes for three days, that his son had put into some distant port in England; but when certain intelligence of the calamity was brought him, he fainted away, and was never seen to smile from that moment to the day of his death, which followed some time after, in Normandy, from eating too plentifully of lampreys. He died Dec. 1, 1135, in the sixty-eighth year of his age, and the thirty-fifth of his reign, leaving by will his daughter Matilda heiress of all his dominions.

HENRY II. was born in 1133, and invaded England Jan. 7, 1153, and had homage done him as successor to Stephen, Jan. 13, 1154. He began his reign, Oct. 25, 1154, and was, with his queen Eleanor, crowned at London on the 19th of December following. In 1166 he quelled the rebellion at Maine; and in 1170 he had his son Henry crowned king of England. In 1171 he invaded Ireland, and reduced the island to his subjection in 1172. Henry was now the most powerful prince of his age, the undisputed monarch of England, and possessed of more than a third of France. His reign was, however, soon disturbed by the intrigues of the celebrated Thomas à Becket, who had risen through the gradations of office until he was made archbishop of Canterbury. Becket set up as defender of the privileges of the clergy, which it was Henry's aim to abridge. A violent contest ensued between the king and Becket; but after a reconciliation had been made, Becket was murdered at

Canterbury by four of the king's attendants. Henry next undertook an expedition to Ireland. The island was wholly subdued, for nothing was capable of opposing the farther progress of the English arms. Thus, after a trifling effort, in which very little money was expended, and blood shed, that beautiful island became an appendage to the English crown, and it has ever since continued. The remaining part of Henry's reign was, however, a scene of turbulence and disquietude, owing to domestic troubles. In 1173, he imprisoned his queen on account of Rosamond, his concubine. Henry, knowing the influence of superstition on the minds of the people, and, perhaps, apprehensive that part of his troubles arose from the vengeance of heaven, did penance at Becket's tomb in 1174. The day after, he received absolution, and was acquainted with the news of a signal victory obtained over the Scots on the day of his absolution. Henry died at Chinon, near Saumur, in the fifty-eighth year of his age, and the thirty-fifth of his reign; in the course of which he displayed all the abilities of a politician, all the sagacity of a legislator, and the magnanimity of a hero.

HENRY III. was born October 1, 1207, and was crowned at Gloucester, Oct. 28, 1216. He married Eleanor, daughter of the count of Provence, Jan. 14, 1236; pledged his crown and jewels for money, when he married his daughter Margaret to the king of Scots, 1242; obliged by his nobles to resign the power of a sovereign, and sell Normandy and Anjou to the French, 1258. In 1261, he shut himself up in the tower of London, for fear of his nobles. In 1264, he engaged in a strong contest with the earl of Leicester, and was taken prisoner at Lewes, at the battle of Evesham, 1265. In 1265, Henry and his son Edward again engaged with the earl of Leicester at Evesham: the earl's army having been exhausted by famine on the mountains of Wales, was but ill able to sustain the impetuosity of young Edward's attack, who bore down upon it

with incredible fury. Leicester behaved with astonishing intrepidity, and kept up the spirit of the action, from two o'clock in the afternoon till nine at night. At last, his horse being killed under him, he was compelled to fight on foot; and though he demanded quarter, the adverse party refused it. Henry was soon wounded in the shoulder; and not being known by his friends, he was on the point of being killed by a soldier; but cried out, "I am Henry, of Winchester, the king." Prince Edward hearing the voice of his father, instantly ran to the spot where he lay, and had him conducted to a place of safety. The body of Leicester was found among the dead. The victory proved decisive; and the prince having thus restored peace to the kingdom, found his affairs so firmly established, that he resolved upon taking the cross, which was, at that time, the highest object of human ambition. Henry being overcome by the cares of government, and infirmities of age, ordered himself to be removed, by easy journies, from St. Edmund's to Westminster, where, on the night of his arrival, he expired, Nov. 16, 1272.

HENRY IV. duke of Hereford, and grandson of Edw. III was born 1367; married Mary, the daughter of the earl of Hereford, who died 1394, before he obtained the crown. In 1397 he fought with the duke of Norfolk, but Richard II. stopped the combat, and ordered the combatants to leave the kingdom: the duke of Norfolk for life, and Henry for ten years. He returned to England in arms against Richard, who resigned him his crown, and Henry was crowned, Oct. 13, when he instituted the order of the Bath, and created forty-seven knights. In 1402, he was defeated by the Welsh, and, in 1403, he married a second queen, Joan of Navarre, widow of the duke of Bretagne. In 1403 the rebellion of the Percies began, but was suppressed soon after. Henry died of apoplexy, in Westminster, March 20, 1413; was buried at Canterbury, and succeeded by his son, HENRY V., who was born in

HISTORY.

1388. and was crowned in 1413. In his youth he was notorious for all kinds of debauchery; and, in 1412, one of his dissolute companions being brought to trial before sir William Gascoyne, the prince was so exasperated at the issue of the trial, that he struck the judge in open court. The prince was immediately committed to prison. In this reign the first principles of the reformation began to expand, and sir John Oldcastle, one of its strenuous promoters, was roasted alive! In 1415, Henry embarked for France, and landed at Harfleur with an immense army, part of which was destroyed by the dysentery. The battle of Agincourt succeeded, in which the English gained a splendid victory. (See *Agincourt*.) In 1416, Henry pledged his regalia for 20,000*l.* to push his conquests, and a treaty being concluded, Henry fixed his court at Paris in 1421; but, just as his glory had reached its summit, and both crowns devolved upon him, he was seized with a fistula, and died in the following year, aged thirty-four.

HENRY VI. was born at Windsor, in 1421; ascended the throne August 31, 1422; and was proclaimed king of France the same year. Henry V., previous to his death, had appointed the duke of Bedford, his eldest brother, to the regency of France. In 1428, the duke commenced the siege of Orleans, the first adverse blow to the English power in France. (See *Joan of Arc*.) In 1445, he married Margaret of Anjou, and was crowned in the same year. In 1446, the celebrated insurrection broke out, headed by Jack Cade; and, in 1452, the duke of York, who had been appointed to the regency of England by Henry V. marched to London, with an army of 10,000 men, but retiring into Kent, was followed by Henry VI., at the head of a superior army. The king soon after fell into a distemper, and the duke of York was appointed lieutenant and protector of the kingdom. In 1455, however, Henry resumed the reins of government, and annulled the protectorship of the duke, who levied an army,

though without advancing any pretension to the crown. At length a battle was fought at St. Albans, on the 31st of May, when the Yorkists slew about 5,000 of their enemies. Henry fell into the hands of the duke, and he was obliged to commit the whole authority of the crown to his rival. This was the first blood spilt in the fatal quarrel between the houses of York and Lancaster, which lasted thirty years, and is computed to have cost the lives of eighty princes of the blood, and almost entirely annihilated the ancient nobility of England. The duke of York did not long retain his newly-acquired power: Margaret availing herself of that prince's absence, produced Henry before the House of Lords, where he was reinstated without any open opposition. After several skirmishes, the duke was defeated at Bloreheath, Sept. 23, 1459, and afterwards fled to Ireland. In 1460, the duke's partisans marched into London, and soon after the memorable battle of Northampton was decided against the royalists; when the duke appearing before parliament, they at length declared in favour of his claim, and it was decreed that Henry should possess the dignity during the remainder of his lifetime; and that the administration should, in the meanwhile, remain with the duke. Margaret, however, spurned this compact; and among the northern barons raised an army of 20,000 strong, defeated the duke, who was killed in the action, and his head fixed on the gates of York, with a paper crown, in derision of his pretended title. In 1461, the queen divided her army, and marched towards London, where the earl of Warwick had been left with the command of the Yorkists. Her other division was defeated in Hertfordshire, with the loss of 40,000 men. Margaret next defeated Warwick at St. Albans, when 2,300 of the vanquished perished. Edward, the son of the late duke of York, however, advanced upon her from the other side, and compelled her to retreat towards the north. Edward now entered London; and, after an in-

king in St. John's-fields, he was proclaimed king by the title of Edward IV. The spirit of Margaret was not, however, broken, and having collected in Yorkshire an army 60,000 strong, the king and the earl of Warwick hastened, with 40,000 men, to check her progress. At length the memorable battle of Tooton ended in a total victory on the side of the Yorkists, when 36,000 men were computed to have fallen. Henry and his queen, who had remained at York during the action, now fled to Scotland. The battle of Hexham, in 1464, at length utterly defeated all the hopes of the Yorkists, and, shortly after, Henry was taken prisoner, and brought to London, while Margaret escaped to Flanders. Henry was, however, shortly after released from prison, and Edward was exiled to Holland. He afterwards made a descent at Ravenspur. London opened her gates to him, and Henry was again plucked from his throne, and sent back to prison. The Lancastrians were again defeated at St. Albans, and Warwick was slain. Tewkesbury was the scene of the last exertions of the queen, and being taken prisoner with her son, the prince was murdered by the partizans of Edward. To complete the tragedy, Henry himself was murdered by the duke of Gloucester; and Margaret, after bravely defending the cause of her husband in twelve battles, died in France a few years after, in a miserable condition. The most remarkable law passed in Henry's reign, was that for the election of county members.

HENRY VII. derived his lineage from John of Gaunt, and was nearly allied to Henry VI. He was born in 1455. He landed at Milford Haven, August 7, 1485, and having defeated Richard III. at the ever-memorable battle of Bosworth, in the same year, he was elected king. In 1486, he married Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV. Soon after his marriage he went into the north, where the partizans of Richard were strong on every side, and making hostile preparations. The greater part of

the rebels submitted to his clemency, and the others raised the siege of Worcester, and dispersed themselves. In 1487, an impostor, named Lambert Simnel, started up as a Plantagenet. The conspiracy soon extended, but, at length, the rebels were decisively defeated at Stoke; and, Simnel being taken, was made a scullion in the king's kitchen; but his adherents were punished with great severity. In October, 1492, Henry laid siege to Boulogne, and received of the French king, as a compromise for his claim on that crown, 186,360*l.* besides 25,000 crowns yearly. In 1493, the country was greatly agitated by the pretensions of another impostor to the English crown, named Osbeck, or Warbeck, but corrupted into Peterkin, or Perkin. (See *Warbeck*.) After a variety of adventures, he was executed at Tyburn, with several of his followers. Soon after this, another impostor, named Wilford, undertook to personate the earl of Warwick; and this serving Henry as a pretence for his severity towards that prince, Warwick was accused of forming designs to disturb the government, and was tried and executed. Henry died of a consumption, in 1509. By his avarice and cupidity, he is said, at one period, to have possessed 1,800,000*l.* To allay the terrors he laboured under in his latter years, he endeavoured to make atonement for his iniquities and severities, by founding religious houses. During this reign, gunpowder and artillery were introduced in the art of war, and a general revolution may be said to have been produced in human affairs about this period.

HENRY VIII. was born in 1491, and succeeded Henry VII. in 1509. He placed himself at the head of a formidable army, 50,000 strong, and as a war with France was pleasing to the people, he determined to head his forces, for the conquest of that kingdom. After an ostentatious but ineffectual campaign, a truce was concluded between the two kingdoms; and Henry began to dissipate, in various follies, those immense sums which

HISTORY.

had been amassed by his predecessor for very different purposes. As the old ministers, who were appointed to direct him by his father, would not willingly concur in these projects, Henry discontinued asking their advice, and chiefly confided in the counsels of Thomas, afterwards cardinal Wolsey, who complied with all his inclinations, and flattered his sanguine and impetuous temper. In order to divert the envy of the public from the inordinate exaltation of Wolsey, he soon entered into a correspondence with Francis the First, of France. In consequence of that monarch's wishes, Henry was persuaded by the cardinal to an interview with him. This expensive congress was held between Guisnes and Ardres in the year 1520, near Calais, within the English pale, in compliment to Henry for crossing the sea. In the same year a celebrated tournament took place in Picardy, between the two sovereigns. By such means all the immense treasures of the late king were quite exhausted, and the king relied on Wolsey alone for replenishing his coffers. In this reign, the first attempt was made to render the king master of the debates in parliament. Wolsey paved the way; and Henry too well improved upon his plan soon after. In 1519, one of the most extraordinary and important revolutions that ever employed the attention of man was now ripe for execution. This was no less a change than the reformation. (See *Reformation*.) In 1521, Henry received the title of Defender of the Faith; and, in the following year, he was styled Head of the Church. In 1527, Henry had been eighteen years married to Catherine of Arragon, who had been brought over from Spain, and married his elder brother, who died a few months after co-habitation. Among the maids of honour then attending on the queen, was one Anna Bullen, the daughter of sir Thomas Bullen, a gentleman of distinction, and related to most of the nobility. Henry, who never restrained any passion that he desired to gratify,

saw and loved her; but, after several efforts, found that without marriage he could have no chance of succeeding. This obstacle, therefore, he hastily undertook to remove; and, as his own queen was now become hateful to him, in order to procure a divorce, he alleged that his conscience rebuked him for having so long lived in incest with the wife of his brother. In this pretended perplexity, therefore, he applied to Clement VII. who owed him many obligations, desiring to dissolve the bull of the former pope, which had given him permission to marry Catherine; and to declare that it was not in the power, even of the holy see, to dispense with a law so strictly enjoined in Scripture. The unfortunate pope, unwilling to grant, yet afraid to refuse, continued to promise, recant, dispute, and temporize; hoping that the king's passion would never hold out during the tedious course of an ecclesiastical controversy. During the course of a long perplexing negotiation; on the issue of which Henry's happiness seemed to depend, he had at first expected to find in his favourite Wolsey, a warm defender, and a steady adherent; but Wolsey seemed to be in the same dilemma with the pope. The king endeavoured to stifle his resentment, until it could act with certainty. He for some time looked out for a man of equal abilities and less art; and, at last, accident threw in his way one Thomas Cranmer, of great talents and of more integrity. Thus finding himself provided with a person who could supply Wolsey's place, he executed his resentment against that prelate. The attorney-general was ordered to prepare a bill of indictment against him; and he was peremptorily commanded to resign the great seal, which was given to sir Thomas More. He was soon after arrested by the earl of Northumberland, at the king's command, for high-treason, and preparations were made for conducting him from York, where he then resided, to London, in order to take his trial. He at first

refused to comply with the requisition, as being a cardinal; but finding the earl bent on performing his commission, he complied, and set out, by easy journies, for London. In his way, he was suddenly taken ill, not without violent suspicion of having poisoned himself. He with much difficulty reached Leicester Abbey, where he died, in all the pangs of remorse. Henry now privately married Anna Bullen, whom he had created marchioness of Pembroke. Soon after, he publicly owned his marriage, and, to colour over his disobedience to the pope with an appearance of triumph, he passed with his beautiful bride through London, with a magnificence greater than had been ever known before. As the monks had shewn him the greatest resistance, he resolved at once to deprive them of their power. He accordingly empowered Thomas Cromwell, secretary-of-state, to send commissioners into the several counties of England to inspect the monasteries. This employment was readily undertaken by some creatures of the court; and they are said to have discovered whole convents of women abandoned to lewdness, friars accomplices in their crimes, pious frauds every where practised to increase the devotion and liberality of the people, and cruel and inveterate factions maintained between the members of many of these institutions. A general horror was excited in the nation against them. In 1536, a new visitation was appointed, and fresh crimes were produced. In less than two years, Henry from this exposure became possessed of all the monastic revenues. These, on the whole, amounted to 645, of which twenty-eight had abbots, who enjoyed a seat in parliament. Ninety colleges were demolished in several counties; 2374 chantries and free-chapels, and 110 hospitals. The whole revenue of these establishments amounted to 161,000*l.*, which was about a twentieth part of the national income. But, as great murmurs were excited by some upon this occasion, Henry took

care that all those who could be useful to him, or even dangerous in cases of opposition, should be sharers in the spoil. He either made a gift of the revenues of the convents to his principal courtiers, or sold them at low prices, or exchanged them for other lands on very disadvantageous terms. In 1536, Henry caused his queen, Anna Bullen, to be put to death, and on the following day he married Jane Seymour. This measure soon produced dreadful harvests for persecution. Henry's opinions were delivered in a court of law, which, from its horrid consequences, was appropriately termed the Bloody Statute. Bainham and Bilney were burned for their opposition to popery, and bishop Fisher was beheaded for denying the king's supremacy. His execution was a prelude to that of sir Thomas More, a man of inflexible integrity, who was condemned and beheaded on the 6th of July, 1535. In 1537, the fires of Smithfield blazed with unusual fierceness. Those who had adhered to the pope, or those who followed the doctrines of Luther, were equally the objects of royal vengeance and ecclesiastical persecutions. Soon after, no less than 500 persons were imprisoned for contradicting the opinions contained in the Bloody Statute. During these horrid transactions, Henry was resolved to take another queen, Jane Seymour having died in child-bed; and contracted a marriage with Anne of Cleves. He hated her, however, the moment he saw her; and resolved to get rid of her and his prime-minister Cromwell together. Cromwell was accordingly arrested for high-treason; he was accused in parliament of heresy and treason; and without being even heard in his own defence, was condemned, and suffered on the scaffold. Anne of Cleves being divorced, Henry married Catherine Howard, in August 1540, and she also being accused of unchastity, was beheaded on Tower-hill, with the lady Rochford, February 12, 1542. In 1543, Henry married his sixth and last wife, Catherine Parr.

HISTORY.

Though his health was declining apace, yet his implacable cruelties were not the less frequent. The duke of Norfolk, and his son, the earl of Surrey, were the last who felt the effects of the tyrant's groundless suspicions. The latter was arrested, tried, and condemned for high-treason, notwithstanding his eloquent and spirited defence; and the sentence was soon after executed upon him on Tower-hill. The parliament meeting on the 14th day of January 1546, a bill of attainder was found against the duke of Norfolk. The death-warrant was made out, and immediately sent to the lieutenant of the Tower. The duke prepared for death; but an event of greater consequence to the kingdom intervened, and prevented his execution. At length Henry died, of a fever, and an ulcerated leg, Jan. 28, 1547, aged fifty-six, after a reign of nearly thirty-eight years.

HENRY II. surnamed the Young, duke of Brunswick and Lunenburg, was a bold, daring prince, and assisted Charles V. in Italy against the French. He likewise signalized himself in the war of the peasants in Germany; entered into the pretended holy league in 1536, but was expelled his dominions by the Protestant confederates in 1549. The French king maintained him during his banishment, and enabled him to raise a new army; but he and his son were taken prisoners by Maurice duke of Saxony, in 1560. **HENRY** of Burgundy, went into Spain 1080, and conquered Portugal from the Moors, assisted by Alfonso VI. king of Castile. He died in 1112; at the siege of Astorga. He was succeeded by his son **Alphonso**.

HENRY, emperor of Constantinople, succeeded his brother **Baudouin VIII.** who was also count of Flanders. He was crowned in 1206. The Grecians being weary of the Latins, endeavoured to shake off their government in this new reign, but Henry vanquished them. He died in 1216, at Thessalonica, and was succeeded by Peter Courtenay earl of Auxerre, who married Jo-land his sister.

HEPBURN, earl of. (See *Northwell*.)

HEPTARCHY in England. (See *Britain*.)

HERBERT, (Edward,) lord Herbert of Cherbury, a learned and able writer, was born in Montgomeryshire, in the year 1581, and educated at University-college, Oxford. —At the accession of James the First he was created knight of the bath. After this he distinguished himself at the siege of Juliers; and in 1616, was sent ambassador to Louis XIII.; but was recalled, on account of a dispute between him and the constable de Luynes. In 1625, he was created a baron of the kingdom of Ireland; and, in 1631, advanced to the English peerage. He died in 1648.

HERMANARIC, king of the Astrogoths, was descended from the illustrious family of Amali, and signalized himself in so many engagements, that he has been compared by the ancients to Alexander the Great. The Heruli, the Venedi, the Estii, and many other nations, were successively reduced by his extraordinary valour. At length the Huns invaded his country, in 376, and being conscious of his inability to resist their forces, he chose to slay himself rather than to behold the calamities that threatened his subjects.

HERMOCRATES, a celebrated Syracusan general, famous for his probity and justice; he attempted to remonstrate against the cruel and tyrannical practice of putting the Athenian commanders to death.

HEROD, surnamed the Great, and Ascalonita, followed the interest of Brutus and Cassius, and afterwards that of Antony. He was made king of Judea by means of Antony, and, after the battle of Actium, he was continued in his power by his flattery and submission to Augustus. He rendered himself odious by his cruelty, and as he knew that the day of his death would become a day of mirth and festivity, he ordered the most illustrious of his subjects to be confined and murdered the very moment that he expired, that every eye in the kingdom might

stem to shed tears at the death of Herod. He died in the 70th year of his age, after a reign of forty years.

HEROPHILUS, an impostor in the reign of J. Caesar, who pretended to be the grandson of Marius. He was banished from Rome by Caesar for his seditious, and was afterwards strangled in prison.

HERULI. The Heruli were originally a Gothic nation, who inhabited the countries beyond the Danube till the year 401, when many of them were destroyed by the Lombards, and the survivors settled in Pomerania, and then removed into North Dacia; but being oppressed by the Gepidae, the Romans permitted them to cross the Danube, and allowed them certain lands in Thrace. Others of them established themselves without opposition on the peninsula of Scandinavia. After the death of the emperor Justinian, the kingdom of the Heruli was destroyed, and themselves entirely subjugated by the Lombards.

HERVEY, (John, lord,) was the eldest son of the first earl of Bristol, and born October 15, 1696. In 1730, he was made vice-chamberlain to the king, and a privy-councillor. In 1733, he was created lord Hervey of Ickworth, and in 1740 made lord-privy-seal; but was dismissed the next year. He died August 5, 1743.

HESSE, the house of, one of the most illustrious in Germany, originally from the house of Brabant.

HETRURIA and **ETRURIA**, a celebrated country of Italy, at the west of the Tiber. It originally contained twelve different nations, which had each their respective monarch, called Lucumon. Their names were Veientes, Clusini, Perusini, Cortonences, Arretini, Vetuloni, Volaterrani, Rusellani, Volcarni, Tarquinii, Falisci, and Caeretani. They are celebrated as the instructors of the Romans, and in 311 A. M. they made war upon Rome, but were defeated. They afterwards mixed with the Gauls and the Samnites, but were equally unsuccessful. The Hetururians proved powerful and resolute enemies to the rising empire of the Romans,

and were conquered only after much effusion of blood.

HEXHAM, a market-town in the county of Northumberland. Near this place, in 1463, a battle was fought between the houses of York and Lancaster, in which the forces of Edward IV. under the marquis of Montague, afterwards duke of Northumberland, completely defeated those of Henry VI. who was afterwards made prisoner.

HEZEKIAH, king of Judah, was born A. M. 3251. He succeeded his father Ahas in 3277, or B. C. 726. Some years after, Hezekiah shook off the Assyrian yoke, and in 3200 defeated the Philistines, and destroyed their country. He died in 3306 A. M.

HIERO I. a king of Syracuse, after his brother Gelon, who rendered himself odious in the beginning of his reign by his cruelty and avarice. He made war against Theron, the tyrant of Agrigentum, and took Himera. He obtained three different crowns at the Olympic games, two in horse-races, and one at a chariot-race. Pindar has celebrated him. In the latter part of his reign the conversation of Simonides, Epicharmus, Pindar, &c. softened the roughness of his manners, and the severity of his government, and which tended to render him the patron of learning, genius, and merit. He died after a reign of 18 years, B. C. 467, leaving the crown to his brother Thrasybulus, who disgraced himself by his vices and tyranny. The second of that name, king of Syracuse, was descended from Gelon. He was unanimously elected king by all the states of the island of Sicily, and appointed to carry on the war against the Carthaginians. He joined his enemies in besieging Messina, which had surrendered to the Romans; but he was beaten by Appius Claudius, the Roman consul, and obliged to retire to Syracuse, where he was soon blocked up. Seeing all hopes of victory lost, he made peace with the Romans, and proved so faithful to his engagements during the fifty-nine years of his reign, that the Romans never had a more firm, or more attached ally. He

HISTORY.

died in the 94th year of his age, about 225 years before the Christian era. He was universally regretted, and all the Sicilians shewed by their lamentations that they had lost a common father and a friend. He liberally patronized the learned, and employed the talents of Archimedes for the good of his country.

HIERONYMUS, a tyrant of Sicily, who succeeded his father or grandfather Hiero, when only fifteen years old. He rendered himself odious by his cruelty, oppression, and debauchery. He abjured the alliance of Rome, which Hiero had observed with so much honour and advantage. He was assassinated, and all his family was overwhelmed in his fall, and totally extirpated, B. C. 214.

HINDOSTAN. (See *India*.)

HIPPIAS and HIPPARCHUS, two sons of Pisistratus, king of Athens, whom they succeeded 527 B. C. Hipparchus was slain by a conspiracy 512 B. C. Two Athenians having determined the destruction of the two brothers: Hippias was to have been slain first, but seeing him with one of the conspirators, they dispatched Hipparchus, whose guard killed one of the assassins, and delivered the other to Hippias. He commanded him to be tortured, in order to extort from him the names of the other conspirators; the assassin accordingly mentioned some of Hippias's best friends, who were immediately put to death. The government of Hippias afterwards became odious and detested, and, at the siege of Athens by the Lacedæmonians, he surrendered the city and retired to Sigeum, on the Hellespont, 509 B. C. Thus Athens once more recovered its liberty. The names of the two assassins were afterwards held in the highest reverence, and statues were erected to their memory. An attempt was afterwards made to restore Hippias to the government of Athens. By some authors he is said to have perished at the battle of Marathon; but others assert that he escaped to Leumoe, where he died in penury and wretchedness.

HIRAM, king of Tyre, and son of Abibal, distinguished for his magnificence, and adorning the city of Tyre. He assisted Solomon in building his temple, and in 1044 sent several skilful architects into Palestine.

HIRTIUS AULUS, a consul with Pansa, who assisted Brutus when besieged at Mutina by Antony. They defeated Antony, but were both killed in battle, B. C. 43.

HOBBSKIRK HILL, an eminence near Camden, in South Carolina, where, in August 1781, a battle was fought between the British under lord Rawdon, and the Americans under general Green, in which the latter were defeated.

HOCHKIRCH, a village of Saxony, celebrated for the defeat which the king of Prussia sustained here from the Austrian field-marshal Daun, on the 14th October, 1758. In this battle general Keith was killed.

HOCHSTADT, a small town of the Bavarian states. It has been the scene of repeated conflicts: the imperialists were defeated near it by the elector of Bavaria in 1703. In 1704, 13th of August, the French and Bavarians sustained a signal defeat from the duke of Marlborough and prince Eugene, between this town and Blenheim. —In 1800, the French under Moreau obtained considerable success here over the Austrians. (See *Blenheim*).

HOFER, (Andrew,) a heroic Tyrolese, who headed an insurrection of his countrymen on the 10th of April, 1809. Hofer, after defeating his enemies at Lofer, Lustenstein, and Abtenay, drove them from Hallein, and pushed forward his van into Styria, intending to attack the French in their rear; but the peace of Vienna frustrated all his hopes, and turned against him an immense superiority of numbers. Lefebvre advanced to Inspruck, and two armies entered the Tyrol by different routes from Italy. Hofer, perceiving all farther resistance hopeless, resigned the command. He demanded from the hostile generals a cessation of hostilities, that the Tyrolese might return to their homes. Hofer re-

tired into concealment, intending, according to circumstances, either to take up arms in the spring, or to retire into the Austrian dominions. He was betrayed by a priest, but the French not daring to provoke the indignation of the Tyrolese, by sacrificing him in the country which he had so bravely defended, conveyed him to Mantua, where he was tried, on the 24th of February, 1810, and sentenced to be shot. He met his fate with firmness, rejoicing that he had done his duty.

HOFF, a small town of East Prussia. An action took place here on the 6th of February, 1807, between a party of Russians and French, two days previous to the great battle of Eylau.

HOGUE, La, a small town on the north coast of France, in Normandy. In the neighbourhood of this place happened the famous sea-fight of May, 1692, in which the French fleet was completely defeated by the English; five sail of their line-of-battle being destroyed, and sixteen more stranded and burnt.

HOHENLINDEN, a village of Bavaria, twenty miles east of Munich, remarkable for the great defeat which the Austrian army sustained here on the 3d of December, 1800, from the French, under Moreau.

HOLLAND, or the United Provinces. Julius Cæsar having experienced the valour of the ancient Batavians, employed them successfully against the Gauls, whom they every where routed and dispersed. Even the Romans dreaded their resentment, and formed them into the body-guard of the emperors, who reposed equal confidence in their fidelity and courage. At this period, their government seems to have been monarchical, and it is supposed, that Clodius Civilis was descended from their kings. He was the hero who roused the Batavians to throw off the Roman yoke, who obtained many victories over the oppressors of his country, and whose valour shone more bright and conspicuous in adversity, after he had been defeated by the German legions.

The Batavians, with the rest of the empire, became subject to the Franks, and were governed by Charlemagne and his descendants till, on the decline of that house, the great lords and officers of the crown, taking advantage of the weakness of the reigning princes, rendered their governments hereditary in their families. After this, the provinces of the Netherlands experienced frequent revolutions. They were sometimes distinct, and independent of each other, and sometimes united in one monarchy, under the same prince. Some provinces were governed by kings, some by dukes, and others by counts. The sovereignty of the flourishing provinces which, on account of their situation, were called the Netherlands, passed, by the marriage of Mary, of Burgundy, to the emperor Maximilian, of the house of Austria; upon whose death, Charles V. succeeded to these provinces. When Charles resigned his crown to Philip, that part of the Low Countries, called the Spanish Netherlands, was in the most flourishing state. Under the mild house of Burgundy, they became artisans, and rich merchants; but under Charles they were made soldiers. On the departure of Philip for Spain, he appointed his natural sister, Mary, duchess of Parma, governess of the Netherlands, but in subordination, or more properly, entire submission, to the orders of cardinal Granvelle, who was in the king's secrets. However, all the efforts of the duchess were ineffectual to satisfy the remonstrances of the clergy against the proposed erection of new bishoprics, and the people exclaimed against the inquisition, which had already begun to display its tyranny. The prince of Orange, count Egmont, and Montmorency count Horn, carried a statement of grievances to their new governess, and strenuously insisted upon the states being assembled, and such measures being adopted, as might save the government from destruction. Granvelle violently opposing this proposal, they wrote to the king himself;

and Philip, "after using every species of evasion and delay, at length returned an answer so gracious, as encouraged them openly to oppose the cardinal, and pass upon him such affronts and mortifications, that he resolved on retiring to Spain. However, the resignation of Granvelle did not produce the desired effect. Two of his creatures, Viglius and count Barilamont, succeeded the cardinal in 1563, and trod exactly in his steps. Their violence appeared so unreasonable, that finding Philip inflexible, the reformers broke out into the most unjustifiable excesses. Philip, therefore, resolved, in spite of every remonstrance, and the advice of many of his counsellors, to punish his revolted subjects; and, for this purpose, he ordered a strong and well-disciplined army to the Netherlands, under the command of the duke of Alva. The persecutions now went on with redoubled activity: and thousands groaned under the extremity of torture, and breathed their last in execrations on the authors of their misfortunes. Alva, with the troops destined for the Netherlands, embarked at Barcelona on the 20th of May, 1567; and his arrival spread equal consternation and astonishment over the provinces. The duke of Alva ordered the inquisition to proceed with the utmost rigour; in short, nothing was seen but confiscation, torture, blood, horror, and despair; and, in the space of a few months, 1,800 persons suffered by the hand of the executioner. Under the axe of the cruel Alva fell the heads of the counts Egmont and Horn. In the mean time, William of Nassau, prince of Orange, who, with some others of the principal Flemish nobles, had retired into Germany, successfully employed his credit in raising troops. These he poured into the Netherlands in different directions, for the purpose of dividing the Spanish force. The prince was successful in this species of warfare, till the want of money obliged him to dismiss his troops. The levies, which he solicited, through the me-

dium of his secret agents, soon assumed a legal form, because the states, instead of assembling at the Hague, whither the duke of Alva had summoned them, met at Dordrec. There they regulated discipline and finance, and nominated the prince of Orange general of the confederacy. They next assigned funds for the support of the army; and each province engaged to furnish a quota according to its ability. In 1571, therefore, a demarcation was made between the states which continued subject to the Spanish monarchy, and those which separated from it. The latter began at Zealand, and extended as far as Guelderland inclusive, stretching along the Rhine to East Friesland. These tracts, with some additions on the side of Liege, still constitute the contents of the seven United Provinces, called the States-General. At length, the duke of Alva, disgusted and dispirited with the failure of his best schemes, quitted the Low Countries, and was succeeded by Frederic de Requesens. Philip perceiving the necessity of using milder measures, published a proclamation, offering a free pardon to all, except the prince of Orange, who should come in and sign an abjuration of their heresy. Under such limitations, the provinces universally rejected the benefit of Philip's offer, and resolved on maintaining their liberties to the last. The states-general obtained the assistance of Elizabeth, queen of England, in 1575, who lent them 20,000*l.* sterling, on condition that the French should not be admitted into the Netherlands, and the provinces would not refuse reasonable terms of accommodation when offered. A cessation of hostilities was next agreed on with Don John of Austria, who had been appointed governor, and who was, at last, obliged to grant the demands of the states, to confirm the pacification of Ghent, and to dismiss the Spanish army. However, Don John displayed, in a short time, his intentions of resuming the former oppressive government; and the false policy and despotism of Philip again lighted up the torch

of civil war, which was not to be extinguished but by the total extinction of the dominion of the Spanish monarchy over the seven provinces. The prince of Orange, perceiving, from fatal experience, that little reliance was to be placed on mercenary allies, formed the design of more closely uniting the provinces. Accordingly, deputies from the states of Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Friesland, Groningen, Overijssel, and Guelderland, assembled at Utrecht, in 1579, and signed the alliance, which formed the basis of that commonwealth, so renowned by the appellation of the United Provinces. In 1581, the states published an edict, excluding Philip from any sovereignty, right, or authority, over the Netherlands, and expressly renouncing their allegiance to him. The duke of Anjou was elected sovereign of the United Provinces, by the style and title of duke of Brabant. Soon after the death of the duke of Anjou in France, in 1584, the prince of Orange was assassinated by one Balthazar Gerard, who shot him with a pistol loaded with three balls. In 1584, the states elected his second son, Maurice, stadtholder, and captain-general by sea and land; but as the troops of Philip, under the duke of Parma, took some important places from the provinces, a treaty of alliance was concluded with queen Elizabeth, who sent an army under the command of the earl of Leicester, as governor-general. The misconduct and incapacity of Leicester soon became apparent, and he left the affairs of the provinces in a much worse situation than that in which he found them. The whole burden of administration was now transferred to the shoulders of young Maurice, in 1590, who foiled the Spanish general in every attempt, and who exhibited sufficient proofs of his superior military talents and towering genius. In 1592, the archduke Ernest was made governor of the Netherlands by Philip; but he soon incurred the contempt of each party. Philip now conceived, for the pacifica-

tion of the Netherlands, a plan from which he expected the most complete success, and which consisted in detaching the Low Countries from the crown of Spain, by giving them, as a marriage-portion to his daughter, the infanta Isabella, between whom and the archduke Albert, his relation, he had projected a matrimonial union. For this purpose, that prince was sent to govern the provinces which Philip destined for him; and this expedient prevented the ten provinces from uniting with the other seven, and preserved them for the house of Austria. Albert prosecuted the war against the seven provinces, whose troops were commanded by Maurice, with bravery and skill. At length, the court of Spain began to talk of peace, and, in 1606, the archduke even sent deputies to the Hague to treat with the United Provinces as a free people; but though a congress was formed, the ambition of Maurice, and the insolent demands of the deputies, prevented its coming to any satisfactory conclusion. However, the weighty interference of the neighbouring powers, and the reasonable propositions offered by Spain, at last produced a truce for twelve years, on terms mutually beneficial. Maurice fell a victim to care, chagrin, and disappointment, after spending the greatest part of his life in the service of his country, of which he was considered the preserver, and the greatest warrior and statesman of his age. He was succeeded by prince Henry in all his titles and employments; and, under his administration, the power of the Batavian republic rendered itself very conspicuous. He caused an alliance with the United Provinces to be courted by France and England, and concluded one with Sweden. He obtained the empire of the sea by the talents of the celebrated Van Tromp, and triumphed victoriously on land by his own abilities. He died in 1647. He was succeeded by his son prince William II. in 1650, who, after possessing the stadtholdership about three years, died of the small-pox. By a treaty which

HISTORY.

the Dutch were afterwards obliged to conclude with the commonwealth of England, having incurred the displeasure of Cromwell, his son, the prince of Orange, was excluded the stadtholdership and other high offices. The affairs of the United Provinces were at this time conducted by De Witt, who was equally distinguished by his magnanimity, ability, and integrity. At length William III. was declared prince of Orange, and proved himself worthy of the heroic family from which he was descended. England and France having combined against Holland, the spirit of William infused itself into every breast, and the inhabitants were even resolved to quit the country, rather than subject themselves to a conqueror; and from the moment of this desperate resolution, their affairs assumed a more promising appearance. This war was ended by a general peace concluded at Nimeguen, in 1678, by which Maestricht, the only place belonging to the United Provinces in the hands of Louis XIV., was restored to the states. A short time previous to this event, the prince of Orange married Mary, niece of Charles the Second, and daughter of James duke of York, afterwards king of England, by which he greatly increased his power, and afterwards raised himself to the British throne. When the discontents in England, at the government of James, had arrived at their utmost height, several English noblemen and gentlemen invited the stadtholder to deliver them from popery and arbitrary power. William, who, from the moment of his marriage with Mary, had always kept his eye on the English crown, determined to accede to their proposals, and was finally successful. In 1702, the states-general nominated to the stadtholdership his nephew, William Charles Henry, who rendered the stadtholderian dignity hereditary in his family. Holland took a principal part in the war which was undertaken against Louis XIV., respecting the succession to the Spanish monarchy, and

which was terminated by the treaties signed at Utrecht by the several belligerent powers. On the dignity of the stadtholder being rendered perpetual, the prince of Orange, on attaining the twenty-first year of his age, took the administration upon him in 1706, which afforded an addition of strength to the Protestant cause, and occasioned great rejoicings throughout all the United Provinces. In 1780, during the contest between Great Britain and her American colonies, the Dutch, who with France took the part of the latter, proved that their sailors had not lost that courage which distinguished them in the days of De Ruyter and Van Tromp. For the last two centuries, two parties had been continually struggling for superiority; the first of these was the family of Orange; and the second, that of the states and the town councils. The digarchy had, for many years previously to 1780, entertained the design of excluding the stadtholder, and of stripping him of his disproportionate authority. At length they contrived that the different burghers should form themselves into a free corps, with the character of volunteers, taking care that the commanders should be connected with themselves. The first efforts of liberty appeared in the city of Utrecht, and afterwards in Overysel and Holland. The stadtholder now called on the states to support him; but receiving no answer, he withdrew from the Hague on the 14th of September, 1785, and resolved never to return to the palace of his ancestors till he should be reinstated in his prerogatives. At length, these turbulent commotions were settled by the military interference of Prussia. The duke of Brunswick, who commanded the Prussian forces, after several ineffectual remonstrances, began his march in 1787, which resembled a triumph rather than a campaign. Utrecht, and all the other principal towns, submitted upon his appearance, the volunteers were disbanded, and the deputies came to the resolution of restoring the stadtholder to all

his honours and prerogatives, and of inviting him to repair to his former place of residence. The prince of Orange, therefore, after a short campaign, made his triumphal entry into the Hague, and was restored to the stadtholdership. Treaties of defensive alliance were afterwards negotiated between Great Britain and Holland, and Prussia and Holland; and the states-general decidedly admitted and acknowledged the authority and privileges of the stadtholder. The revolution in France re-inspired the hopes of the patriots, and obtained for them promise of support and assistance. On the imprisonment and execution of the king, the states-general recalled their ambassador, and, in conjunction with Great Britain, resolved to oppose the opening of the Scheldt, which was so likely to affect the prosperity of Holland. Soon after, war was declared against Great Britain and Holland jointly by the French, who directed their first efforts to the expulsion of the stadtholder, and sent Dumourier with an army of 13,000 men, towards Holland. However, the arrival of the duke of York, with a body of British troops, saved this country from the miseries of invasion, and forced the French to retire within their own territories. But the next year the great superiority of the French in point of numbers having obliged the allied armies to retire, Pichegru, the French commander, crossed the Waal with his whole force. The allies retreated behind the Leck, and abandoned the province of Utrecht to the enemy. The prince of Orange now published many animated addresses to the people, entreating them to rise in arms and defend their country; but finding that he could not inspire the Dutch with a spirit of resistance, he desired leave to withdraw, and sailed to England, where he found an asylum. In 1795, while the stadtholder was thus forced to fly, the tree of liberty was planted at Amsterdam, and a complete revolution was effected through the Seven United Provinces, New

municipal officers were chosen by the burghers, and the orders of the nobility and clergy suppressed, and the stadtholdership was abolished. The conquest of Holland by the French, and the treaty of alliance which speedily followed this event, induced England to declare war against the Seven United Provinces, and to seize on all the Dutch colonies in Asia, with the island of Ceylon, and the Cape of Good Hope. In 1797, the French resolved on employing the Dutch fleet to assist them in the invasion of Ireland; and the Dutch squadron, consisting of twenty-six sail, was ordered to sea, under the command of admiral de Winter. The English fleet, under admiral Duncan, came up with the enemy off Camperdown, and an engagement ensued, which terminated with the British capturing eleven ships of the line, and taking the Dutch admiral prisoner. In 1799, after the great successes of the united armies under Suwarrow, Holland being almost the only remaining conquest of the French, strong representations were made to England of the expediency of sending into that country a sufficient force to assist the friends of the stadtholder, and exonerate the republic from the bondage of France. As an army of 30,000 men was required on this occasion, the court of Petersburg, in consequence of its alliance with Great Britain, agreed to furnish between 17 and 18,000 troops. This expedition took place in the autumn; and though the English were put into possession of nine Dutch men-of-war, and three Indiamen, and were for some time successful against the enemy, it soon appeared that they had chosen an improper season of the year, and landed at an improper place. They were at length obliged to sign an armistice, by which it was agreed that the combined English and Russian armies should evacuate the territories of the republic within a certain period, and that 8000 prisoners of war, French and Batavians, should be restored without condition to their respective countries. By the treaty of Amiens, in 1802,

HISTORY

all the English conquests were restored to the Dutch, except the island of Ceylon, ceded to Great Britain; and Holland was recognized, under the name of the Batavian commonwealth. As that country had now become a province of France, it became involved in the late war between England and France. In 1806, Bonaparte overthrew the old government, and forced upon the Dutch a king in the person of his brother Louis. As the United Provinces were full of French troops, and all the strong towns garrisoned by them, a simple edict was sufficient to create a king, and furnish him with a kingdom! In the war waged by France against the commercial prosperity and the maritime greatness of England, Holland was required to adopt the continental system; and orders were issued, by Napoleon, to his brother Louis, to enforce his decrees with rigour. For some time these orders were obeyed; but the wretchedness which they occasioned, and the numerous and urgent petitions of the sufferers, so far prevailed, in the mind of Louis, over every consideration of state-policy, that he threw open the Dutch ports, and repealed his decrees against commerce. Louis, now finding that all his endeavours and sacrifices, on behalf of the Dutch nation, were unavailing, abdicated the throne in favour of his eldest son Louis Napoleon. But as this act of abdication had not been previously concerted with Bonaparte, it was declared invalid, and, in 1810, an imperial decree was issued from Paris, by which the kingdom of Holland was united to the French empire. The disasters experienced by the French army in the Russian campaign, revived the hopes of the friends of the house of Orange; and the battle of Leipzig effected a revolution, by which Holland was liberated from the dominion of France, and restored to her independence. The people of Amsterdam rose in a body, hoisted the Orange colours, proclaimed the sovereignty of that house, and, dismissing the French authorities, organized a

temporary administration. Their example was followed by the principal towns in the provinces of Holland and Utrecht, and a deputation arrived in London, for the purpose of inviting the prince of Orange to place himself at the head of his countrymen. The English government resolved to afford immediate aid to the Dutch. In 1813, the prince of Orange, accompanied by an embassy from England, made his entrance into Amsterdam, where he was proclaimed by the title of William I., sovereign-prince of the Netherlands. The rapid progress of the allied armies completed the triumph of Dutch independence, and the liberties of the people were secured by a constitution, combining many of the advantages of that admirable frame of government which seems destined to form a model for all civilized nations. In the grand settlement of Europe, after the expulsion of Bonaparte from the throne of France, in 1814, there were few objects of greater importance than the adjustment of the future condition of the ten Belgic provinces, usually distinguished by the name of the Catholic Netherlands. On the principle of restitution, they should have reverted to Austria, but the emperor Francis wished to divest himself of a territory which had long been rather a burden than an advantage. Belgium, therefore, was ceded to the sovereign-prince of the Netherlands. By the treaty of Vienna, in 1815, the ancient United Provinces of the Netherlands, and the late Belgic provinces, were to form the kingdom of the Netherlands, under the sovereignty of the prince of Orange. His prince, therefore, assumed the title of king of the Netherlands, and duke of Luxembourg. When Bonaparte repossessed himself of the supreme authority in France, the stability of the Belgian throne appeared to be endangered, and the most vigorous efforts were made to resist invasion in that quarter. The deliverance of Brussels from imminent danger, was the immediate result of the vic-

tery of Waterloo, and the great changes of which it was the instrument, secured the new kingdom of Belgium from all external hazard.

HONORIUS, an emperor of the western empire of Rome, who succeeded his father Theodosius the Great, with his brother Arcadius. He was neither bold nor vicious, but he was of a modest and timid disposition, unfit for enterprise, and fearful of danger. He conquered his enemies by means of his generals, and suffered himself and his people to be governed by ministers who took advantage of their imperial master's indolence and inactivity. He died of a dropsy, in the thirty-ninth year of his age, 15th of August, A. D. 423. Under him and his brother the Roman power was divided into two different empires. The successors of Honorius, who fixed their residence at Rome, were called the emperors of the west, and the successors of Arcadius, who sat on the throne of Constantinople, were distinguished by the name of emperors of the eastern Roman empire. This division of power proved fatal to both empires, and they soon looked upon one another with indifference, contempt, and jealousy.

HOOD, (Samuel, lord viscount,) was the eldest son of the rev. Samuel Hood, vicar of Thornecombe, in Devonshire; at which place he was born in 1724. He went to sea at the age of sixteen; and, after serving six years, was made a lieutenant. In 1754, he became a master and commander; and, for his gallantry in taking a fifty-gun ship, was made post-captain in 1759. In 1778, he was appointed commissioner of Portsmouth dock-yard, which place he resigned in 1780, and was made rear-admiral. With this rank he sailed to the West Indies, where he defeated the attempt made upon St. Christopher's by count de Grasse. He also had an active part in the victory obtained over that commander, on the 15th of April, 1782; for which he was created baron Hood, of Catherington, in the kingdom of Ireland. In 1784, he was elected into parliament for

Westminster; but, in 1787, he vacated his seat, on being named one of the lords of the Admiralty. In 1793, he was appointed to command in the Mediterranean, where he distinguished himself by taking possession of Toulon, and, when it was no longer tenable, destroying the arsenal, dock-yard, and shipping. After this he made himself master of Corsica, and then returned to England, where he was made a viscount, and governor of Greenwich hospital. He died at Bath, January 27, 1816. His brother, Alexander, viscount Bridport, was also a brave and successful admiral, and had a considerable share in the great naval engagement of lord Howe, June 1, 1794.

HOOVER, bishop of Gloucester, was burnt for heresy, in the reign of queen Mary; after his trial he was sent to his own diocese to be executed. This circumstance, which was contrived to strike the greater terror into his flock, was a source of consolation to Hoover, who rejoiced in giving testimony by his death to that doctrine which he had practised among them. He suffered with inflexible constancy, and continued praying to the last.

HOSTALRIC, a small town of Spain, in Catalonia. Its citadel is strong, and, having been a depot of magazines at the time of the French war, underwent a regular siege, but was taken, after a gallant defence. The Spanish general, O'Donnel, in trying to raise the siege, lost the hard-fought battle of Vich, in February, 1810.

HOTHAM, (sir John,) governor of Hull, refused to admit Charles I. into the town, when the king presented himself before it; for which refusal he was proclaimed a traitor, while his conduct was justified and applauded by parliament. He, however, fell a victim to its severity, for having afterwards expressed a wish to favour the king's interest.

HOWARD, (Catharine,) was the fifth wife to Henry VIII. For alleged previous incontinence she was beheaded on Tower-hill, together with lady Rockford.

HISTORY.

HOWARD, earl of **Edinburgh**, a man of distinguished abilities, was appointed admiral of the fleet destined to oppose the Spanish armada; and **Drake**, **Hawkins**, and **Frobisher**, the most renowned seamen of Europe, served under his command. The combined efforts of these great commanders, aided by other propitious circumstances, effected the total discomfiture of the formidable armada.

HOWARD, (Thomas,) earl of **Surrey** and duke of **Norfolk**, was born in 1473. He was bred to arms, and soon after the accession of **Henry VIII.** was honoured with the order of the garter. He succeeded his brother sir **Edward Howard**, as high-admiral, in 1513; and the victory of **Flodden-field** was chiefly owing to his valour and skill. For this, the title of duke of **Norfolk** was restored to his father, and he was himself created earl of **Surrey**. In 1521, he went to **Ireland** as lord-lieutenant, and while there, suppressed a dangerous rebellion. Notwithstanding these services, he was sent to the **Tower** by **Henry**, at the close of his reign, and kept there till the accession of **Mary**; when he was released, and contributed to suppress **Wyatt's** rebellion. He died in 1554.

HOWARD, (Henry,) earl of **Surrey**, was the eldest son of the preceding nobleman, by **Elizabeth**, daughter of **Edward Stafford** duke of **Buckingham**. In 1542 he served in the army, under his father, in **Scotland**; and in 1544 he went as field-marshal to **Boulogne**, where, being then knight of the garter, he was constituted king's lieutenant and captain-general. Happening, however, to prove unfortunate in an attempt upon the enemy's convoy of provisions, he incurred the king's displeasure, which hastened his ruin. Some intemperate language, used by him, was caught hold of; charges were brought against him on the loosest ground; and, being found guilty, he was beheaded on **Tower-hill**, January 19, 1546-7.

HOWARD, (Charles,) earl of **Northampton**, was the son of **William lord Howard**, of **Edinburgh**,

and grandson of **Thomas** the second duke of **Norfolk**. He was born in 1536. He went, in 1539, to congratulate **Francis II.** on his accession to the throne; and, in 1560, was made general of the horse in the army sent against the earls of **Northumberland** and **Westmoreland**. The next year he went with a fleet of men-of-war to convoy the princess **Anne** of **Austria** to **Spain**; and in 1573 he succeeded his father in his titles and estate. The same year he was installed knight of the garter, and made lord-chamberlain of the household; and in 1585 constituted lord high-admiral of **England**.—In 1588 he commanded the fleet which defeated and dispersed the Spanish armada; and, in 1596, when another invasion was apprehended, he was appointed commander-in-chief at sea, as the earl of **Essex** was at land. In this expedition **Cadiz** was taken, and the Spanish fleet burnt; for which he was made earl of **Nottingham**, and justice-itinerant of all the forests south of **Trent**. In 1601 he suppressed the earl of **Essex's** insurrection, and was principally concerned in bringing that nobleman to the block. **James I.** continued him in all his employments; and at the coronation the earl acted as lord-high-steward. In 1605 he went ambassador to **Spain**; and in 1613 he conveyed the princess **Elizabeth**, on her marriage, to **Flushing**. He died in 1624, at the age of eighty-eight.

HOWARD, (John,) the philanthropist, was born at **Hackney** in 1726. He was bound apprentice to a grocer in **London**; but disliking the business, and having an independent fortune, he purchased his indentures, and made the tour of **France** and **Italy**. On his return he married a widow lady, much older than himself, who died about three years afterwards. In 1756, he undertook a voyage to **Lisbon**, to see the place after the earthquake; but, on the voyage, the ship was taken by a French privateer, and carried to **France**. On being released, Mr. Howard retired to a villa in the **New Forest**; and in 1768, married a

second time; but lost his lady, who died in child-bed, in 1765. About this time he settled at Cardington, near Bedford, where his time was much occupied in benevolent objects, and in the education of his son. In 1773, he served the office of high-sheriff, which led him to make enquiries into the state of the prisons. With this view he travelled over England, through France, Germany, Holland, Italy, Spain, Portugal, and Turkey. He published, in 1777, a work, entitled "The State of the Prisons in England and Wales," dedicated to the House of Commons. In 1780 came out an appendix, with an account of the author's travels in Italy. He also printed a description of the Bastille, a translation of the duke of Tuscany's new code of civil law; and, in 1789, "An Account of the principal Lazarettos in Europe." The plague was now the object of his researches, and with a design of ascertaining the nature of this disorder, and the means of curing it, he set out for the east; but died of a malignant epidemic, at Cherson, Jan. 20, 1790. A statue has been erected to his memory in St. Paul's cathedral.

HOWE, (Richard, earl,) the third son of sir Emanuel Scrope, second viscount Howe, by Mary Sophia, eldest daughter of the baron Kilmansegge. He was born in 1725, and, at the age of fourteen, went on-board the Severn, part of the squadron destined for the South Seas under Anson. In 1745 he was with admiral Vernon, and soon after was made commander of the Baltimore sloop, in which, with another armed vessel, he beat off two French ships conveying troops and ammunition to the Pretender; for which he was made a post-captain. On the breaking out of the war with France he commanded the Dunkirk; with which he took the Alcide, a French sixty-four, off Newfoundland. In 1757 he served under sir Edward Hawke, and his ship, the Magnanime, battered the fort on the isle of Aix till it surrendered. After this he was appointed commodore of a squadron, with which he took the town of Cherbourg, and destroyed

the bason. In the unfortunate affair of St. Cas, he displayed equal courage and humanity, and by his exertions brought off several hundreds of men who would otherwise have perished. He succeeded to the Irish title of viscount in 1759, on the death of his brother, who was killed in America. The next year he bore a distinguished part in the defeat of the fleet under Conflans. In 1760, he was appointed colonel of the marines; and, in 1763, had a seat at the admiralty-board. In 1765, he was made treasurer of the navy; and, in 1770, promoted to be rear-admiral of the blue; in 1775, rear-admiral of the white, and afterwards vice-admiral of the blue. France having now entered into a war with England, lord Howe was sent to America, where he defended the coast from the attempts of D'Estaing; after which, he returned to England. In 1782, he was made an English viscount, and appointed to the command of the fleet sent to the relief of Gibraltar, which object he accomplished. The next year he was made first lord of the admiralty; but soon resigned that station to lord Keppel. In 1788, he was created an earl of Great Britain. On the breaking out of hostilities with France, in 1793, he was appointed to command the channel fleet; and, on the 1st of June, the following year, he gained a complete victory over the French, who lost seven ships of the line. For this he received the thanks of parliament; the king visited him on-board his ship, presented him with a valuable sword, and made him knight of the garter. The last service rendered by his lordship to his country, was in reducing the mutinous seamen to their duty, at Portsmouth, in 1797. He died August 5, 1799.

HUGH, (Capet,) duke and afterwards king of France, was the son of Hugh the Great; who dying, left him under the protection of Richard I., duke of Normandy. They descended by the males from Pepin the Great, by the count Childebrand, and by the females from Clovis. Lothair, king of France, pleased with Hugh's pru

dence and generosity, gave him, in 988, the dukedom of France, with the earldoms of Paris and Poitou. When he was dying, he recommended to him his son Louis V. named the Lazy, who, dying fifteen or sixteen months after his father, Hugh Capet was proclaimed king at Noyon, and crowned at Rheims, 987. Charles I., duke of Lorraine, son of Louis IV., was the only man left of the royal blood of France; but his love for the Germans, and the homage he had paid the emperor, rendered him odious to the French. In endeavouring to recover his right, he was taken at Laon, and sent to Orleans by Hugh, who, by his prudence, pacified the kingdom. Six months after his coronation, he united his son Robert with the crown, and they governed conjointly till 997, when he died.

HUNGARY.—A complete account of ancient Hungary would present little more than the melancholy picture of a country the perpetual seat of war. The history of its revolutions would comprehend numberless cruel commotions, excited by the sons of violence opposed against each other, and watching for their prey;—new actors entering on the stage;—one inundation of invading armies and wars succeeding one another;—the country plundered, the people destroyed. The Romans, indeed, for a time, assumed an ascendant, and obtained a decided superiority over the opposite and conflicting parties. The following, though not a complete, is an authentic account of such particulars as tend to illustrate the subject. It contains a number of facts, incidents, and observations, that may be useful as an historical summary. In tracing the various circumstances of what historians term the universal transmigration of nations from the northern hive, we find those barbarians frequently pouring down, like a torrent, into Hungary, and from thence making their furious irruptions into the other regions of Europe. The countries anciently called Illyricum and Noricum, included the modern divisions of Dalmatia,

Illyria, Croatia, Corinthia, and Saltzburg. After the conquest of these, about seventy years prior to the vulgar era, the Romans entered Pannonia, (the south-west part of modern Hungary,) under Augustus and Tiberius. About a century later, they advanced further into the countries of the Geta and Dacians, now designated by the names of Transylvania, Wallachia, Moldavia, &c. These warlike nations, it was matter of exultation to the Romans, in the height of their glory, to reduce. Their arms penetrated into almost every part between the Adriatic and the Black Sea. Perhaps the magnitude of their empire proved, ultimately, its destruction; it is certain, however, that torpor and imbecility, the natural consequences of age and decay, were opposed to the vigour and violence of lawless plunderers, whose exertions were proportioned to their firmness and vigilance. The Romans had greatly abused their power, so as to render their downfall necessary; and the Gothic nations were appointed agents of the divine vengeance. About the end of the third century, that part of them since called the Visigoths, had driven the Romans out of Dacia. These Westgothen, or Goths of the west, were so named in opposition to the Ostgothen, or Ostrogoths, who reached eastward to the banks of the Dnieper or Borysthènes. The Romans, however, retained Pannonia. It is deserving of notice that these irruptions of the barbarians were more strongly marked, and attended with greater success, than any before. The subjugation thus brought about portended the breaking of the empire to pieces, and the subversion of its gigantic power. Other invasions followed; a horde of Jazyges, surnamed the Metanastes, (a word which indicates a change of dwelling, their former seat being the plains of the Tanais or Don.) took possession of the country between the Teyesse and the Danube. The Quadi occupied a territory towards the frontiers of Moravia, which last was inhabited by the Marcomanni.

These expeditions seem to have been far exceeded, in the boldness of projects and exploits, by fresh hordes, that ravaged Europe, from the year 576 to the middle of the fifth century. The Huns had been expelled from the frontiers of China, to a large tract of land now called the Baschkirs; but other swarms pouring in, and spreading themselves over it, they again migrated, crossed the Wolga, and began to occupy the countries about the Black Sea. In 576, turning westward, they entered and overran whatever the Gothic nations possessed in Dacia. Fifty years after, they invaded and reduced Pannonia; and under Attila, cruelly wasted many other parts of Europe, ravaging and destroying, with fire and sword, for fourteen years together. Their conquests extended from the Baltic to the Mediterranean, and from the Black Sea to the interior of Gaul. This scourge of God and terror of men died in 453, and his mighty empire was soon after divided and torn into pieces. The Gepidæ, whose origin is unknown, exhibited the first beginning of those divisions. These barbarians conquered the country between the Theysse (Tibiscus,) and the Danube, and soon after added Dacia to it. Other victorious conquerors settled themselves in the adjoining countries. The Ostrogoths took possession of Pannonia, when the emperor Marcian, for the sake of peace, confirmed them in their seats by a grant. They extended their dominion afterwards from Vienna to Belgrade, on the right of the Danube. There was no common interest to actuate their operations, and the successes and conquests of one invading nation were checked by another. The Gepidæ frequently overran Pannonia, but their intrusion was not pleasing to the emperor Justinian, and he invited the Lombards, who then bordered on Moravia, to enter the country and drive them out. It was not without opposition, and after a series of sanguinary successes, that its reduction was effected, about the middle of the sixth century. Another barbarous horde

then arose on the frontiers of Europe, bringing desolation and destruction with it. A numerous army, drawn out of several countries, the whole of which, as a nation, had the name of Ogres, but in history they are called Avari, after plundering and making cruel havoc on the coasts of the Black Sea, set out for the Danube about the year 568. They formed a junction with the Lombards to exterminate the Gepidæ, who being powerfully invaded on every side, were extirpated or made tributary. Stripped of all power and authority, their name no longer occurs as a people, and the Avari assumed the sovereignty of their country. Albinus, chief or king of the Lombards, was bent upon invading Italy, which he afterwards entered by the way of Istria; and meeting with success, erected a kingdom, of which Milan was the capital. He had previously ceded Pannonia to the Avari, who distributing their forces made sore desolations in the adjacent territories, totally ruining some cities, and ravaging several provinces, till, at length, they were masters of all the country, from the Black Sea to the Adriatic. About the year 620, the Sclavi, who inhabited parts of Bohemia, Moravia, Poland, and the Carpathian mountains, founded a real independence. Some of their tribes had been subjected by the Avari, but uniting their forces they found means to recover Dalmatia, Croatia, and Bosnia, from their conquerors; and, profiting by the series of events which succeeded, to form several states. Among these was Moravia, which became a considerable kingdom, Hungary then constituting a part of it. The Avari, weakened by wars in which they had been long engaged with the Bulgarians, were finally expelled from Pannonia, by the superior numbers or happier exertions of Charlemagne. This new change took place, before the expiration of the eighth century; what remained of them were subjected to the Moravian Sclavi, or to the Bulgarians, settled between the Theysse and the Maros, Coeval

HISTORY.

with these later events, the Hungarians or Magyares, (pronounced nearly as Mad-jar, as the natives always style themselves) appeared in their earliest form. Authors are not agreed as to what the word originally signified, nor when the use of it was introduced. Some derive the Hungarians from the Finland nations, from the proximity that prevails between certain words of their respective dialects. But what seems more probable, is, that the country was named Hunavaria, or Hungaria, when the Avari invaded it, as it is certain that, in those times, the name Huns-Avari was sometimes applied to the people. They were considered as remains of the Huns. The words Ugri, Ugriatski, signifying Strangers, were attributed, successively, to different bands of invaders, by the Slavi. This similarity is supposed by some to mark the origin of the word. The Magyares appear to have been a principal division of that great northern nation contiguous to the Altai mountains, whence issued the hordes who introduced such changes in the character of nations, Asiatic and European. The Ogres or Avari, the Bulgarians, the Chazars, the Hajatelites, the Turks, properly so called, the Pastinakites and the Uzes, were all derived from the same countries, and most probably from the same stock. So far as the Magyares are concerned, their progress from the Altai mountains seems obvious. Separate from others, we trace them as a distinct object, shifting successively to the Wolga, the Boristhenes, forming an alliance with the Chazars, who, from the fifth century, settled in the Crimea, and on the coasts of the Black Sea, at war with the Pastinakites, some of their tribes scattered about Mount Caucasus, others forming establishments in Moldavia, Buckwina, and Galicia. And lastly, about the end of the ninth century, we find a division of them entering the plains of Munkatz, under their leader Alom, whose son Arpad was the first duke of Hungary. At the epoch alluded to, the Gelavi and Bulgarians, under various particular princes,

were in possession of all the countries between the Danube and the present limits of Galicia and Moravia. The Wallacians, a mixture of the ancient Slavi and of Roman colonists, who had long lived as refugees about Mount Hamus, had returned, to establish themselves in the districts between the Danube and the rivers Aleuta and Sereth. The western part of the country between the Danube and the Save, was subject to the Germans, under the government of the emperor Arnulph. The right bank of the Danube formed the limits of the eastern empire, under Leo VI. Within a few years (in 896,) Arpad had dispossessed several of the princes of Hungary, and contracted alliances with others. He subdued a considerable portion of the Moravian kingdom; and, in the ardour of conquest, was for attempting to establish himself in the territories of Arnulph. This last was at variance with Sciato-polk, king of Moravia, and some parts of his conduct afforded an occasion to the barbarians of making reprisals. Arpad, after this, extended his conquests into Bavaria, Swabia, Franconia, and, at length, into Italy; his exertions were divided, but every where successful. His son Zoltan also took the lead in military affairs, and his conquering arms were felt in countries still more distant; in 907, he had penetrated into Alsatia, Lorrain, and France. While the genius of the state was thus aspiring to eminence, the strength of others seemed proportionately paralysed, as if the unrelenting cruelties characteristic of Attila were again to be feared. The imputation of savageness affixed to the name of the Huns inspired terror, till their fourth duke, Geyza, diverted their ferocious disposition into other channels. The attention he bestowed in giving a tinge of religion to the mind and manners of his countrymen, operated as an incentive to their civilization. Their third duke, Taxis, flourished in 947. It was not till the commencement of the eleventh century, that a people rude, and proud of their rudeness, were induced to relin-

quish their barbarous habits. Stephen, their last duke and first king, introduced the Christian religion, and those social institutions, which, if left to operate unresisted, give a stamp to the character of a people. He died in 1038, after a reign of forty-one years, during which he had established laws in the interior, reunited Transylvania to his kingdom, subjugated the Sclavi and Bulgarians, and effected much for the amelioration of society and morals. On the death of Stephen, Hungary became subject to the tyranny of different princes, the country being involved, for nearly a century, in the horrors of civil war. In this distracted state of the kingdom, various usurpers aspiring to the throne, the churches were destroyed, and the ministers of religion persecuted. Any intervals of peace were interrupted, by the Bulgarians, Wallachians, Russians, Croats, &c. renewing their inroads. The names and dates of the princes are as follow: Peter, 1038; Oyo, 1041; Andrew I, 1046; Bela I. 1060; Salomon, 1063; and Geysa I. 1075. Under Ladislas I. 1077, the country enjoyed some tranquillity; religion, commerce, legislation, tempered the hold independence of a dark age; and as a warrior, he also became the temporary saviour of his country. Forty years of tyranny and bloody wars under Koloman (1096) and his son Stephen II (1114) succeeded to this calm. A fierce energy of character prevailed in the nation, and its manners were in accordance. In 1131, we find Bela II. on the throne, and his son Geysa II. in 1141. These princes rescued the country from its degraded, miserable state, their influence extending to its religion and morals, no less than to its interest or glory. Their government possessed confidence, and obedience was not refused to the laws. After the death of Geysa, in 1161, the names of princes that occur are Ladislas II. and Stephen III. both in 1161, and Stephen IV. in 1162. These reigns produced some wars and disturbances, not very material to state, arising from the restless character of the Hungarians, and the insub-

ordination of their neighbours. Under Bela III. 1173; Emerick, 1196; Ladislas III. 1204; and Andrew II. surnamed of Jerusalem, 1205; Hungary exhibited proofs of moderation and tranquillity which might be justly contrasted with the crimes and cruel dissensions of her earlier career. The reign of Andrew was long and glorious; he invested the nation with a new character, so as to attract the attention of the rest of Europe. From his wisdom and virtues he assumed an importance which recommended him to Pope Honorius III. and he was chosen chief of the sixth expedition to reconquer the Holy Land. In those romantic wars, he made a distinguished figure. From the pressure of famine, he, at length, returned, and his conduct during the remainder of his reign abundantly justified the approbation which it received. A disastrous period follows. As if misery enough had not been brought on this suffering country, the usual scenes of plunder and devastation return. Bela IV. son of Andrew, (1235) treated his subjects as enemies; arrogant and cruel, he seems to have known nothing of humanity but the name. Then appears the Mongols, who, after their invasion of Russia, penetrate into Hungary; ruffians of a gigantic size, and ravaging on a greater scale. Their career of cruelty ran through four successive years; the destruction was universal, those rapacious and sanguinary wolves turning the country into a vast desert. Bela, forced to fly, owed his preservation, and the recovery of his dominions, to the generous efforts of the knights of Rhodes. After this, he reigned twenty-six years; in the latter of which, he sought to conciliate the good-will which he had lost by his tyranny. Our attention is next turned to the wars with Bohemia, wherein Stephen V. 1270, and Ladislas IV. 1272, displayed a firmness that delivered their country, by asserting its rights, and did honour to themselves. The leading circumstances that ensued are the conquest of Bulgaria; the excommunication of Ladislas, and

the unfortunate issue of it with respect to himself, ending his days among the Kumans; the accession of Andrew III. 1290; his wars with the Austrians and Venetians, and his marriage with the daughter of Albert of Austria, whom, at first, he had refused; a political cause to which some of his movements in war may be traced. The race of Stephen I. became extinct with Andrew III. in 1301. Hungary then resumed the right of electing her sovereigns; a situation and juncture which involved the nation in dangerous and trying circumstances. Two kings were elected; Wincellaus, in 1301; and Otho, in 1305; but pope Boniface VIII. had ordered otherwise, and disposed of the crown in favour of Charles of Anjou, to whom the people reluctantly submitted. This prince was nephew to St. Louis, and grandson of Mary, daughter of Stephen V., married to Charles king of Sicily. The authority conferred by the pope was not established, without further disputes. Insurrections took place in several parts, and after some years, Charles was obliged to escape in disguise; but, by one of fortune's caprices, he again acquired the supreme authority. His misfortunes excited sympathy, and his return was met by the Hungarians with every demonstration of respect. From the esteem in which his virtues were held, the nation voluntarily raised him to the throne, and swore obedience. His mild and equitable government gained him their confidence, and his original appointment was forgotten. The influence of his sway was felt over the adjoining regions of Dalmatia, Croatia, Bosnia, Servia, Wallachia, Transylvania, Moldavia, and Bulgaria, which were either subjected, or in a state of dependence. Charles died in 1345, and the love of his subjects, from the permanent security they enjoyed, rendered the crown hereditary in his family. His son, Louis I. surnamed the Great, may also be considered as a just and upright governor; the country was in a state of prosperity, and the people in a much better situation than under

his predecessors or successors. The rebellious Bulgarians, ever prone to insubordination and anarchy, were subjugated; he had the advantage over the Saxons, against whom he turned his arms; he freed his country from the Mongols, who had again invaded it, so as to prevent their return, and the Venetians and Neapolitans submitted to his terms of peace. The many claims he had to praise, recommended him to Casimir, king of Poland, who adopted him as his successor; thus Louis ranks amongst the few princes of whom history gives a good account. The death of Louis, in 1382, was a prelude to fresh troubles. The Hungarians had raised to royalty, in 1382, Mary, daughter of Louis I. and wife of Sigismund, elector of Brandenburg; after which, in discontent, they invited Charles, king of Naples to the throne, in 1385. No sooner had he firmly seated himself, than we read of his assassination. In 1387, Sigismund arrived at the head of an army, rescued Mary from imprisonment, and ascended the throne. But no sooner was he raised by one faction, than he was put down by another, which had usurped its place, and reinstated by a third. Such was the state of Hungary, at the commencement of his reign, which was moreover marked by persecutions of the Hussites, and by interminable wars with the Bohemians, resulting from the same cause. Scarcely were those troubles appeased, when the Ottomans, from neighbours became invaders, subjecting the inhabitants to their daily depredations and extortions; the nation had also to contend in bloody wars with the Austrians. This period gave rise to John Corvin or Hunniades, whose character has been justly eulogised for his military achievements in wars with Amurath II. and Mahomet II. His conduct therein was so judicious, and his courage so conspicuous, that some authors consider him as the perfect model of a warrior. He served under Albert of Austria, (1437,) Wladislas I. (1440,) and Ladislas V. (1459). His son, Mathias Cor-

vin, unanimously elected in 1490, gave indications of great gifts and talents, adding not a little to the lustre of his father's acquirements. From his character, policy, military operations, and great power, he has been described as one of the most accomplished kings of Hungary. Such was the force of his mind, that his views extended to whatever could secure his government, and render it formidable. His ends were great and his means prudent; he kept both the Turks and Austrians at bay, and, as a politician and hero, was watchful over his enemies, both abroad and at home. To his other eminent qualities, this king added a measure of literary reputation. He is particularly characterised as conversant in the languages, arts, and sciences of his time; the country flourished under his establishments, civil and military, and the love of his subjects shews the great esteem in which he was held by them. Compared, generally, with his contemporaries in power, the energy of his mind seems worthy of admiration. He knew how to anticipate hostile designs, and we find the kingdom, under his government, preponderating in the balance of Europe; it included Moravia, Lower Austria, Moldavia, and a part of Silesia. Nor are there any particulars to tarnish his great character, and detract from his merit. In tracing the political annals of Hungary, one circumstance deforms the narrative, that a prosperous reign is generally the precursor to the commission of enormities, for seizing the vacant government. Matthias had no children, and the election of a new king occasioned a scene of distress. The triumphant competitor, Wladislas II. king of Bohemia, though elected by the nation in 1490, came at the head of an army to receive his crown. The gloomy tranquillity of the kingdom was disturbed by wars with Austria, by the enterprises of Bajazet II., and by a pretended crusade which terminated in a civil war. Such is the scene which his history presents,—comparative mi-

sery, the country in a degraded state, and little good to be justly considered as a counterbalance. This was the beginning of sorrows, for under his son, Louis II. 1516, the horrors of consuming war, the relentless flame, the insatiate sword, were aggravated by an invading host of Turks, with brutal ferocity, rioting in indignities and cruelties. First they besieged Belgrade, which surrendered to their arms; this acquisition was aggrandised, by various other successes. In the famous battle of Mohacs, Louis was defeated and slain; Buda was given up to pillage; and the ferocious barbarians, under Solymán II., after plundering the country, converted the scene of their depredations (between the Drave and the Raab) into an immense desert. Internal troubles, and external wars, generally attended the election of a king. There was a number of competitors; but the archduke Ferdinand asserted a superior claim, from his marriage with Anne, sister of Louis, and from a treaty concluded between his father Maximilian, and Wladislas II. The Hungarians had a consideration for him, but in dread of his brother, Charles V., then advanced to the throne of the empire, they elected John tie Zapola, who had been very active in opposing the Turkish force. Ferdinand, now king of Bohemia, at the head of an army of Bohemians and Austrians, entered Hungary, defeated the army collected by John de Zapola, and became master of the kingdom. These competitions spread destruction throughout the land. John de Zapola found a protector in Solymán, who engaged to restore him on condition of his becoming tributary. The Turks again entering Hungary, obtained conquests, plundering, as friends, what they had before ravaged as foreign invaders. Solymán advanced to the walls of Vienna; but being obliged to retire, on his return to Buda, the garrison of which the Turks had massacred, he re-established John de Zapola on the throne. The history here presents a recital of usurpations, bloodshed, and devast-

HISTORY.

tation. Ferdinand raised another army, and after several engagements, the Germans, the Turks, interior factions, alternately possessing themselves of the territories and provinces, a treaty was concluded, whereby the crown was ensured to Ferdinand, on the death of John de Zapola. But though the armies were dispersed, the country was not restored to peace. John de Zapola married; and the prince, the fruit of that union, gave rise to a war of thirty years' duration. Zapola died in 1540, and the Hungarians invited Ferdinand to the throne. As usual, the principal events and most remarkable actions were mingled with the succession to the crown. The country was again desolated and crimsoned with blood. The Germans besieged Buda, and the Turks relieved it; but it was only in appearance. Their aid was not wanted, and these protectors became worse enemies to the Hungarians than the armies of Ferdinand. Zapola had appointed Solymán tutor to his son, and his unfortunate widow, Isabella, with the most upright intentions, was unable to preserve peace. From the intestine distractions of the country, she was forced to seek refuge in Transylvania. In short, the dogs of war were let loose upon society, and the history of Hungary contained battles, sieges, and animosities, produced by opposite religious and contending factions. These evils were partly attributed to the acts, influence, and ambition of Georges Martinuzzi, who had been associated, by Zapola, in the guardianship of his son. In 1564, Maximilian II. emperor of Germany, laid claim to the crown, but it was not till 1570 that a peace was finally ratified between the Hungarians and the Germans. John Sigismund, son of Zapola, was created prince of Transylvania; and the next circumstance to be noticed and recorded, is the definitive subjection of the Hungarians to the imperial house of Austria. If the tide of war was stemmed for a time, it was not turned. In addition to the enormous evils above

stated, more blood was to be spilt; more outrages committed. In contemplating this aggregate of misery we may trace, as causes, wars with the Turks, the progress of Lutheranism, and the persecutions that attended it, perpetual contests with the princes of Transylvania, with the successive insurrections of Bokkai, Gabor, count Tekeli, and, lastly, of Ragotski. From that period, the malignant influence, which had been the source of numberless calamities, ever opposing difficulties in the way of the country's prosperity, seems to have declined. At the accession of Charles VI. emperor of Germany, Ragotski was deserted by his followers, and a definitive treaty, in 1711, terminated all differences; it was not till then that every principle of internal hostility, that all those evils which had proved a hindrance to civilization, disappeared. It is due to the local governments to mention, that, in general, they acted with moderation, labouring to promote peace and harmony, and exercising justice equally towards all. From the general cast and spirit of the people, they appear since to have lost, in a great measure, their original character. They form a very important part of the Austrian dominions, as will be readily allowed. The language of insubordination seems to have become obsolete. In the trying times of Maria Theresa, their services were numerous and important. These were tendered in an affecting manner, when they adopted that ejaculation expressive of the national feeling:—"*Moriamur pro rege nostro, Maria Theresa!*"—"Let us die for our king, Maria Theresa!" As the Hungarians are now united to the Austrian dynasty, the series of their kings is that of the emperors. After Maximilian II. they occur in order as follow: Rodolph, 1576; Matthias II., 1612; Ferdinand II., 1619; Ferdinand III., 1637; Leopold I., 1658; Joseph I., 1705; Charles VI., 1711; Maria Theresa, 1741; Joseph II., 1780; Leopold II., 1789; and Francis II., now king of Hungary and emperor of Austria.

HUNS.—The posterity of the Albanians, having migrated from their native country, established themselves in that part of Asiatic Sarmatia which bordered on the Palus Mæotis and the Tanais. They were divided into several tribes, but were all comprised under the general name of, Ugri, which was afterwards changed into that of Hunni. The Sarmatian or Scythian Huns were a hardy, warlike, and ferocious people, who subsisted entirely on roots or raw meat. Their first excursion in quest of new settlements, was about A. D. 376, when, having passed the Palus Mæotis, they made a dreadful slaughter among the Alans, Ostrogoths, and Visigoths, and took possession of that vast tract of country which extends from the Tanais to the Danube. The Nephthalite or White Huns inhabited a rich tract of territory at a considerable distance from the Sarmatian Huns, with whom they had neither affinity nor intercourse. Attila, king of the Huns, having subjugated most of the neighbouring nations, conceived the daring design of seizing the Roman empire; and passing the Danube, he made himself master of several cities and fortresses, ravaged the country with fire and sword, and compelled Theodosius to conclude a peace on disadvantageous terms. In the reign of Charles the Great, the Huns were possessed of Dacia Mæsia, and both the Pannonias, and were finally subdued by that prince, about the year 794. From the Ugri, the ancient general name of the Huns, is derived the modern appellation of Hungarians.

HUSSEYN, Shah, son of Solyman, whom he succeeded in 1604. (See *Persia*.)

HYA, the name of the first Chinese dynasty, founded by Yuta, from 2207 to 1767, B. C. (See *China*.)

HYDE, (Edward,) earl of Clarendon, was born at Dinton in Wiltshire, February 16, 1608. In the parliament which began at Westminster, April 10, 1640, he was returned for Wotton Bassett; and in that which followed the

same year, commonly called the Long Parliament, he sat for Sal-tash; when he distinguished himself by carrying up the impeachment against some of the judges. But though he acted zealously in the redress of grievances, he was no less strenuous for upholding the dignity of the crown, and the rights of the church. He also opposed the bill of attainder against Strafford; and when the parliament proceeded to call out the militia, he left the house altogether; for which he was excepted from pardon. He then joined the king at York, and was nominated chancellor of the exchequer, sworn of the privy-council, and knighted. In this capacity he took his place in the parliament that assembled at Oxford; and in 1644 he was one of the king's commissioners at Uxbridge. In May, 1648, he was called to Paris; where he continued to serve Charles II., by whom he was sent to Spain in the following year, to solicit assistance from that court; but returned without success, in 1651. He then went to live at Antwerp, and in 1657 was made chancellor of England; in which office he was continued at the Restoration. He was also chosen chancellor of Oxford, and advanced to the peerage by the title of baron Hyde, of Hindon. In 1661, he was created earl of Clarendon; but the marriage of his daughter with the duke of York, and his own inflexible virtue, operated against him, both in court and parliament. In 1663, a charge of high-treason was exhibited against him in the Lords, by the earl of Bristol; but it ended to the chancellor's honour. He was next accused of having sold Dunkirk to the French; and, in 1667, the seals were taken from him. This was the prelude to an impeachment; to avoid the consequences of which, he retired to France; after which, an act of perpetual banishment was passed against him. The year following a villanous attempt was made upon his life at Evreux, by some English seamen; and it was with difficulty that he escaped from their

HISTORY.

outrage. He then went to Montpellier, next to Moulins, and lastly to Rouch, where he died, Dec. 9. 1673.

HYDER ALI, a formidable ene-

my to the British, in the late Indian wars, who raised himself from a common sepy to be a prince of rank and power. (See *India*.)

I.

ICENI, a tribe of ancient Britons, north of the Trinobantes, in Norfolk, Suffolk, Cambridgeshire, and Huntingdonshire; whose capital was Venta Icenorum, or Caister, not far from Norwich. The famous Boadicea was queen of the Iceni, when revolted against the Romans. (See *Boadicea*.)

IDANTHYRSUS, a powerful king of Scythia, who refused to give his daughter in marriage to Darius I. king of Persia. This refusal was the cause of a war between the two nations, and Darius marched against Idanthyrus, at the head of 700,000 men. He was defeated and retired to Persia, after an inglorious campaign.

ILANZ, or **ILANTZ**, a town in the east of Switzerland. It was in this direction that Suwarrow retreated before Massena in the autumn of 1799.

ILE, DIEU L', a small town in the west of France. It was taken possession of by the English in 1795, with a view of lending assistance to the insurgent royalists, but was soon after abandoned.

IMOLA, a considerable town of Italy, in the ecclesiastical state; in the neighbourhood of which, an action was fought in the beginning of February, 1797, between the Austrians and the French, in which the former were defeated.

INCH KEITH, a small rocky island in the Frith of Forth; so called from the valiant Keith, to whom it was granted, for his gallant conduct at the battle of Barrie, fought in 1610 against the Danes. It was taken possession of and fortified by the English in the reign of Edward VI. but they were obliged to evacuate it after a very gallant defence.

INDEPENDENTS, a fanatical sect, headed by Oliver Cromwell, in the reign of Charles I. They predominated in the army, and

attacking the English royalists by surprise, they cut them into pieces. The Scots were next attacked by them, put to the rout, and Hamilton, their commander, was taken prisoner.

INDIA. This country was visited early by the Phœnicians, Egyptians, and other remote nations of antiquity; afterwards conquered in part by the Persians, subsequently by Alexander the Great, and since by the Mohammedans. The authentic history of it, however, is of no later date than the year 1000, commencing with the conquests of Mohammed Gazni; he possessed the eastern parts of Persia, and made twelve expeditions into Hindostan, sacking some of the principal cities, carrying off their treasure, and trying to exterminate the inhabitants, as he could not convert them to Mohammedism. This empire soon tumbled to pieces, being held together only by conquest. From 1158 to 1398, other invasions, by the followers of Mohammed, continually occurred till the irruption of Nadir Shah, otherwise Kauli Khan, who had raised himself from obscurity to the throne of Persia. One of the most remarkable was that of Tamerlane, in 1398. After having brought into captivity a vast number of the poor inhabitants, he caused 100,000 to be massacred in cold blood, lest they should join the enemy. In 1555, Akbar, the greatest emperor the Moguls ever had, began to reign; and, during a series of wars, massacres, invasions, and other similar pastimes of despotic princes, occupied the throne fifty-one years. Two princes, Jehar Guire and Shah Jehan succeeded; the latter, a debauched character, was dethroned by his son Aurang-zebe, who also put three or four of his brothers to death. From 1600 till 1678, he

kept the kingdom tranquil; but then commenced wars against the princes of the Deccan, which continued till his death, in 1707. As if his evil deeds were to be punished in his descendants, eleven of them were raised to the throne in about as many years, and all in their turn assassinated. In 1722, Nadir Shah, of Persia, invaded the empire, entered Delhi, the capital, and demanded no less than thirty millions of money as a contribution. In 1748, Nizam-ul-Mulk, viceroy of the Deccan, died at the age of 104 years; by his invitation principally had Nadir entered the territory of the Moguls, and destroyed the power of the emperor, as only one imperial army ever entered the field after his departure, and that was defeated by the Rohillas. Delhi, therefore, and a few miles around it, constituted almost the sole territory of the descendants of Tamerlane: while the governors of districts and provinces, under the names of nabobs, rajahs, and a variety of others, became independent sovereigns. Nizam's second son succeeded to his father's throne instead of the eldest, which first began those contests between the English and French East-India Companies, that, after several years' bloody war, terminated in the expulsion of the latter from India. In 1600, queen Elizabeth first sent an embassy to Akbar to solicit commercial intercourse with his dominions. A company was formed to carry the scheme into effect; their voyages were pretty successful, and, after having to contend with the Portuguese in several naval engagements, at length succeeded in forming a factory at Surat, on the Malabar coast, by permission of the emperor Jehangier. Here, however, they did not at first prosper, as well from inadequate funds as the enmity of the Dutch and Portuguese. Accident at length laid the foundation of all their prosperity in the present important city of Calcutta. In 1747, the war commenced through the intrigues of M. Dupleix, who supported Mustapha-zing's claim to the vice-royalty of the Deccan

against Nazir-zing, the right heir, who was befriended by the English. Each party assisted its friend by arms and troops; but just as they were coming to action the French forces retired, and their ally threw himself on the mercy of Nazir-zing, who spared his life. In spite of this clemency, the wretch conspired against and murdered him. Dupleix and Chunda Saib countenanced him; the former being associated with him in the government, the latter appointed the Nabob of Arcot in preference to Mahomet Ali Khan, supported by the English. Mustapha-zing only enjoyed his ill-gotten sovereignty three years, being put to death by the nabobs in 1761, who proclaimed Salabat-zing in his stead. The Mogul, on the other hand, nominated Gauzedy-Khan to the station, but possessed no power to enforce it. Chunda Saib, in the mean time, being assisted by Dupleix with 2000 sepoye, sixty Caffres, and 420 French, defeated and killed Anaverdy Khan, the father of Mohamed Ali, who fled for succour to the English. By them he was supplied with money, ammunition, and men, under the orders of major Lawrence, a brave and experienced officer; but had not great success. Soon afterwards, however, he found the necessity of entering into a closer alliance with the English company; after which, captain Cope was dispatched to put Tritchinopoly in a state of defence; while captain de Gingis, a Swiss officer, marched at the head of 400 Europeans, to the assistance of the nabob. On this occasion, Mr. (afterwards lord) Clive offered his service in a military capacity. He took his departure for Arcot at the head of 210 Europeans and 500 sepoye, and at the first outset shewed the qualities of an able general. In a short time, he found himself invested in Fort St. David's, by rajah Saib, son of Chunda Saib, pretender to the nabobship of Arcot, at the head of a numerous army; the operations of the siege being conducted by European engineers. In spite of his utmost

HISTORY.

efforts, two practicable breaches were at length made, and two general assaults given; but Mr. Clive, having got intelligence of the intended attack, defended himself with such vigour, that the enemy were not only completely repulsed, but compelled to raise the siege with considerable loss. He next marched out in quest of the enemy, being reinforced by a detachment from Trichinopoly; and, having overtaken them in the plains of Arani, attacked, and entirely defeated them, Dec. 3, 1751. This victory was followed by the surrender of the forts of Timery, Conjeveram, and Arani; after which, Mr. Clive returned in triumph to St. David's. In 1752, he marched towards Madras, and was there reinforced by a small body of troops from Bengal. Though the whole did not exceed 300 Europeans, with as many natives as were sufficient to give the appearance of an army, he boldly proceeded to Roveripauk, about fifteen miles from Arcot, where the enemy lay, to the amount of 1500 sepoys, 1700 horse, 150 Europeans, and eight pieces of cannon. The English attacked the entrenchments in front with the bayonet; a total rout ensued, followed by great slaughter. The French to a man threw down their arms prisoners of war, and all the baggage fell into the hands of the victors. Mr. Clive was next dispatched from Fort St. David's by major Laurence, with 400 Europeans, a few Mahratta soldiers, and a body of sepoys, to cut off the enemy's retreat to Pondicherry. In this new enterprize he was again successful, taking several forts and vanquishing M. d'Anteuil, the commander, who, with his whole party, surrendered prisoners of war. Chunda Saib, in the mean time, lay encamped, with an army of 30,000 men, at Syringham, an island in the neighbourhood of Trichinopoly; but major Laurence intercepting his provisions, he was compelled to fly through the camp of the Tanjore general; his head was struck off to prevent disputes, this being the common mode of dealing with

enemies by the natives of India. His army was attacked immediately afterwards by major Laurence, and routed; and the island surrendered, with 1000 French soldiers. Dupleix, mortified, but not dispirited, proclaimed rajah Saib successor to his father, produced forged commissions from the Mogul, and himself assumed the state of an Indian prince. In 1753, reinforcements arrived to both parties: a cessation of hostilities took place in 1755. Expeditions took place into the country of the Polygars, and Madura, Tinivelley, Coilgood, Nelloctah, and other places, were reduced by colonel Heron, who was afterwards broke for misconduct. The English then directed their attention to Tulagee Angria, a famous pirate, who had committed many depredations on their commerce. His dominions consisted of several small islands near Bombay, and a space on the continent of about 180 miles in length and forty in breadth. For fifty years had this state annoyed our commerce; and several ineffectual attempts had been made to reduce it. To root out the marauders at once, admiral Watson was dispatched to attack Geriah, the principal fort. Angria himself fled, leaving his brother to defend it; but showers of balls from the squadron were so incessant and considerable, that the garrison surrendered. Here were found 200 pieces of brass cannon, mortars, much ammunition, and goods, and money to the amount of 125,000*l*. The piratical fleet was destroyed, and 2000 prisoners taken. All his other places soon experienced the same fate, and his power was thus annihilated. In 1756, great danger threatened Calcutta, from the nabob of Bengal, Surajah Dowla, who marched 40,000 foot, 30,000 horse, and 4000 elephants, against it. Cassambuzar surrendered to him at once; and Calcutta being invested, was taken in three days, through the misconduct and treachery of a Dutch guard. This caused the tragedy known by the name of the Black-Hole. (See *Black-Hole*.) Colonel Clive, who had now a commission in the king's

service, immediately on the receipt of this news, embarked from Fort St. David's, with 400 Europeans and 1000 sepoys, on-board admiral Watson's fleet. All the old possessions were soon regained, and the nabob soon reduced to make peace, after a bold attack upon his camp. War, however, was now proclaimed against France, and Chandernagore reduced, permission being obtained from the nabob for that purpose. Very soon afterwards he quarrelled with the company: war with him also was inevitable; and, at the battle of Plassey, Clive, with a handful of troops, defeated his whole army. In this he was assisted by the neutrality of Meer Jaffer Ali Khan, who stood aloof during the engagement. On the Coromandel coast, in the mean time, affairs were going on very indifferently for the English. Things again took a turn; all the enterprises of the French commander seeming to fail. His attempt upon Wandewash, in 1760, proved extremely unfortunate. The English force consisted of 1700 Europeans, including artillery and cavalry; the French to 2200. The auxiliaries of the English were 3000 black troops, while those of the French amounted to 10,000, and 300 Caffrees, nor was the odds less in the artillery. The battle began at eleven o'clock in the morning of January 22, and in three hours the whole French army fled towards their camp, but quitted it on the English pursuing them. Again they attempted a stand under the walls of Chelaput, eighteen miles from the field of battle; but finally retired into Pondicherry, their only remaining strong hold. Chelaput, Timmery, and Arcot, quickly fell into our hands; with Carical, Chellambrum, Verdachellum, Permucoil, Alam-perva, and Waldour. Pondicherry itself was invested: the batteries opened in December, and the place capitulated January 15th, 1761, the whole of the French power in India being thus annihilated. Meer Jaffer, the nabob of Bengal, not answering the expectations of the company, was deposed, and Meer Cassim Ali Khan

placed on the musnud or throne. War was soon declared with him. Moorshedabad, Mongheer, Patna, and all the other towns in the province, were soon taken by major Adams, besides several battles gained in the field. Sujah Dowla, Nabob of Oude, assisted Meer Cassim, and after various battles and sieges, he also lost part of his territories. The conduct of the English council being bad, colonel (lord) Clive, who had now become a peer, and made chief-governor, made peace with him, and restored the major part. In 1767, a new enemy now appeared in the Deccan. This was no less than Hyder Ally or Hyder Naig, who had raised himself from a common sepoy to be a prince of rank and power. He attacked the English in this year; but though his troops were disciplined like the Europeans, they were defeated by colonel Smith. Declining a general engagement afterwards, he had so much success, that adventurers of every kind flocked to his standard, and he was soon at the head of 60,000 cavalry. After various success, he evaded the English army, and appeared near Madras, when the company's servants being alarmed, concluded an alliance with him offensive and defensive. This, however, was not kept by the English; and Hyder being denied assistance in a war with the Mahrattas, conceived a determined antipathy to the nation. Various causes strengthened this for a few succeeding years, till at length he resolved, if possible, to exterminate them. Suddenly he poured through the passes leading to the English districts, with 100,000 men, headed by colonel Lally, a Frenchman, assisted by others, and many European soldiers. In July, 1780, an alarm was given that Hyder's horse were within nine miles of Madras. All the people immediately fled to the town; while the barbarian, after burning the villages, prepared to invest the capital, which, by the quarrels of the council, was nearly defenceless. An express, however, was sent to colonel Baillie, lying twenty-eight miles from the place,

HISTORY.

to proceed to Conjeveram with his detachment. There sir Hector Munro was to meet him with the main body of 1500 Europeans, 4200 sepoys, and artillery; but, from the fatigues of the march, 200 men of the 73d regiment were left lying on the road. The town was in flames when they arrived, and surrounded by large bodies of the enemy's horse; colonel Baillie's force did not appear, a river having swelled and stopped his progress. Hyder had collected his army near Conjeveram, and offered battle several times, while his son, Tippoo Saib, was dispatched with 30,000 horse, 800 foot, and twelve pieces of artillery, the flower of his troops, to attack colonel Baillie, himself watching sir Hector Munro. After various skirmishes and manœuvres, Tippoo gained some advantages over colonel Baillie, and being joined by his father, a desperate battle took place. Prodiges of valour were performed by the English troops; but, from the misconduct of their commander, were at length destroyed or made prisoners. Infantry, cavalry, artillery, match-lock-men, and topasses, surrounded our gallant countrymen on every side, to the amount of 80,000 men; even then, when reduced to only 400 Europeans, they desired to be led against this overwhelming force, such was their desperate courage; and the sepoys behaved almost equally well: 700 of our Europeans were killed on the spot; and Hyder's loss was so great, that he industriously concealed it, but ever afterwards he entertained great terror of British soldiers. After the battle, Hyder, seated in his tent, enjoyed the sight of the heads of the slain, as well as of his prisoners. Colonel Baillie, who was himself very much wounded, was brought to his camp on a cannon, and, with several other gentlemen in the same situation, laid at the tyrant's feet in the open air. In 1781, sir Eyre Coote was now appointed commander-in-chief. Hyder, with 200,000 men, risked a battle with him, July 1st; but, notwithstanding his vast superiority, was routed with great slaughter.

Again he tried another on the 27th August, with similar ill-success and loss. He risked a third, and experienced still greater reverses; and, after this a fourth, near Vellore, likewise unfortunate. Negapatnam and Trincomalee were now reduced, and three indecisive engagements fought between sir Edward Hughes and the French admiral Suffrein. Colonel Braithwaite, with 2000 Europeans, was, however, defeated, and Cuddalore taken from us, as well as Trincomalee, the loss of which was serious. On the other hand, Hyder was again defeated by sir Eyre Coote; and a fourth action fought by the fleets. In 1783, the government of Bombay determined to carry the war as close home as possible to Hyder's doors. For this purpose general Mathews invaded Canara, took nearly all the towns, and obtained immense plunder. Hyder Ally in the mean time had died; and Tippoo, his son, assembling an army of 150,000 men, to recover the loss, appeared before Bidnore the 7th of April, and compelled the English to capitulate. Both parties, however, broke the terms, and our officers being sent to Seringatapam, several were there poisoned. Some time before this a war had broken out with the Mahrattas. One English army was speedily obliged to capitulate; but another, under general Goddard, proved more successful, reducing the whole province of Guzerat, and defeating the Mahratta general, Madajee Scindia. Benares, in Bengal, had revolted some time before, on account of the rajah being arrested by Mr. Hastings, for not paying an exorbitant sum of money. Peace in Europe succeeded, and was of course followed by the same in India. During this time, Tippoo was daily strengthening himself, and improving his territories, by foreign alliances and internal regulations. The first campaign commenced in June 1780, under general Meadows, and proved very successful. The second, with lord Cornwallis himself, was carried out in the heart of the enemy's territories, the great fortress of Banga-

here being reduced. A successful battle (1791) was also fought near his capital, Seringapatam. In 1791-2, being now better provided with necessaries of every description, the combined army of English, Mahratta, and Nizam's forces, moved forward. Severndroog, an almost impregnable fortress, was invested. Tippoo put down the utter disgrace of the English here as certain; yet, in a few days, by incredible labour, exertion, courage, and good-luck, it was assaulted and carried by storm. Outredroog, another place almost as strong, likewise fell very soon. In February lord Cornwallis moved forward against Seringapatam. Tippoo's front line, or fortified camp, within which was the best part of his army, lay defended by heavy cannon in the redoubts, and a large field-train. Sheikh Ansar, a great general, was stationed on the right, and on the Carighaut-hill, while Tippoo himself commanded the centre, having his tent pitched in the sultan's redoubt. The army amounted to 50,000 men here, besides many powerful detachments acting in different parts of the country. On the evening of the 6th of February, orders were issued at seven o'clock for an attack on the enemy's camp and lines, in three divisions. The artillery and cavalry were left to protect the camp, musketry and the bayonet only being relied on. No part in the execution of this hazardous measure was given to the allies, who were astonished when they found lord Cornwallis was to lead the attack like a common soldier. The three columns marched, with equal boldness, to their respective points. Night concealed them, not only from the enemy, but from each other. Various conflicts ensued; and it was not till day-light that they knew of their own success. The right column, under general Meadows, met with many impediments, scaled a redoubt, and killed 500 men in it; forming again, when they had done, in as good order as before. The centre, about eleven o'clock, forced a bound-hedge, amid a heavy fire from the sultan's redoubt, and

lines, which were also soon carried. Our troops now crossed the river to the island, pressing so closely on the fugitives, as almost to enter the citadel along with them, had the bridges not been drawn up. In a cell, or pettah, were found twenty-seven whites, half-starved, and loaded with irons, which admiral Suffrein had given up to the tyrant many years before. The left column crossed the river, and joined the others at the pettah, after securing the Carighaut-hill. Thus, all the objects aimed at in this assault were gained. Twenty thousand of the enemy were killed, wounded, and deserted, on this dreadful night, while, on our part, the loss was comparatively small. Foiled, and dreading the consequences of a siege, Tippoo now thought of peace, sending two British officers with his proposals, who had been detained for years, and ill-treated. He also, at the same time, tried to assassinate lord Cornwallis, by sending a party of horse into the English camp, which, being mistaken, for the Nizam's, had nearly effected their purpose. This was the second attempt of the kind. It was not the only method he took of repairing his fortunes; for, during the march of the Bombay division, he harassed it in every way his means admitted. A junction, however, was effected on the 16th February; and trenches opened on the 18th, 800 yards from the fort; but, though boiling with shame, rage, revenge, and disappointed ambition, Tippoo signed preliminaries of peace five days afterwards, two of his sons being given up as hostages. For six years after this time, Tippoo kept preparing to renew the combat, being always stimulated to it by the French. The Nizam's army, officered by that nation, wished to join him, but were arrested by the prompt movements of marquis Wellesley. The Mahrattas, also, seemed hostile; but the British officers, knowing from experience the inutilty of pursuing a native army in the field, marched at once to the capital of the prime mover of

HISTORY.

the confederacy, Tippoo. Two victories were gained without its walls, and an obstinate contest followed within the city. Much blood was spilt, and many brave men killed, among whom was the sultan, whose body was found under heaps of the slain. The Mahrattas now became troublesome; the peishwa, or chief, though protected by one powerful ruler, Scindia, was driven from his office and dominions by another, Holkar. Against the latter he made common cause with the English, and sir Arthur Wellesley, now duke of Wellington, marched to Poonah and reinstated him. A combination of all the chiefs, however, soon took place to destroy our power, and five armies were set on foot to oppose them. Several great battles were fought, among others those of Delhi, Argaun, and Assye, the two latter under sir Arthur Wellesley. At Assye our troops engaged more than ten times their number; and the Mahrattas were so much improved in tactics as to change their positions five different times during the battle, sustaining as many assaults before they yielded to the bayonet. At the great battle of Deeg, Holkar's army was completely routed, with the loss of 2000 killed, an immense number wounded, and eighty-seven pieces of cannon taken. The rajah of Bhurtpore was another enemy seduced by Holkar. Siege was laid to the fortress by general Lake, but it proved the strongest among the many strong ones in India; four different assaults had been made upon it in vain; another attempt was risked, which proved unsuccessful. During earl Moira's (now marquis of Hastings's) brilliant administration, war took place with the Nepaulese, a nation situated at some distance from our empire. These were soon subdued by the army under sir David Ochterlony. To these succeeded the Pindarries, a very extraordinary body of horse, who, on a sudden, poured into our plains, over-running the country, plundering the people, and barbarously mutilating them. After some extraordinary marches

by our troops, and immense fatigue, they were, at length, however, separated into small parties, chased, like wild-beasts, on every side, and gradually taken prisoners or destroyed. Besides these, a most formidable union took place against us by the peishwa, named Bajee Row, chief of the Mahratta nation, and who owed his throne twice to British generosity: by Scindia, Holkar, Ameer Khan, and the rajah of Nagpore. India, perhaps, was never in greater danger; but, by a series of measures of the marquess of Hastings, indicating uncommon foresight, talents, energy, and military and political skill, the combination, after some sanguinary battles, was defeated. The peishwa and rajah, as a matter of strict justice, were dethroned. The latter, as well as the former, owed his authority twice to our magnanimity and forbearance. By these wise measures, India is now quiet, except a few straggling freebooters.

A. D.

Mahmud founded the Gaz- nairde dynasty, which was overthrown by the Af- ghans	} 1183
First Afghan dynasty	1183 to 1289
Second	1289 to 1525
Empire of the GREAT MOGUL, founded by Babur	1525
Babur died	1530
Humaioon	1530 to 1555
Akbar	1556 to 1605
Selim Jehangire	1605 to 1628
Shah Jehan	1628 to 1658
Aurangzebe	1658 to 1707
Shah Aulum	1707 to 1712
Jehander Shah	1712 to 1713
Feroksere	1713 to 1720
Ruffeh al Dirjaut reigned five months	
Ruffeh al Dowlah reigned three months	
Muhammed Shah	1720 to 1748
Ahmed Shah	1748 to 1753
Aulum Gir	1753 to 1761
Shah Aulum II.	1761 to 1807
Warren Hastings (governor-general) }	1772 to 1785
Marquess Cornwallis	1786 to 1797
Marquess Wellesley	1797 to 1805
Marquess Cornwallis returned 1805 (died the same year.)	
Sir George Barlow	1805 to 1807

Lord Minto 1806 to 1812
Marquess of Hastings 1812

INNOCENT, a name common to twelve popes, of whom the most remarkable are **INNOCENT X.** who succeeded **Urban**, in 1644, and declared war against the duke of Parma, from whom he ultimately took **Castro**. He privately married the princess **Rosanna**, for which they were both banished from **Rome**. **Innocent**, soon after, refused to acknowledge the king of **Portugal**, and condemned the treaties of **Osnaburgh** and **Munster**. He confirmed the bull of **Urban** against the **Jansenists**. He died in 1656.—**INNOCENT XI.** succeeded **Clement X.** in 1676. He disputed the right of investiture with the king and clergy of **France**; but countenanced the persecution of the Protestants in **France**. He suppressed the sect of the **Quietists**, and condemned the author of their principles to perpetual imprisonment. He died, at **Rome**, in 1689.—**INNOCENT XII.** succeeded **Alexander VIII.** in 1691. He reformed many abuses at **Rome**. In 1700, he published a bull for the celebration of a jubilee, but died before its conclusion.

INNSPRUCK, or **INSPRUCK**, the capital of the **Tyrol**. The valley in which **Innsbruck** stands, was the scene of several of the events that took place during the heroic resistance, made by the **Tyrolese**, to the **French** and **Bavarians** in 1809.

INQUISITION, a tribunal erected by the popes in several **Roman Catholic** countries, for the examination and punishment of heretics. It was not till about the year 1200, the papal chair being then filled by **Innocent III.**, that the terms "Inquisition into heresy," and "Inquisitor," were much, if at all heard of. The first inquisitors were vested with a double capacity, not very happily united in the same persons: one was that of preachers, to convince the heretics by argument; the other, that of persecutors to instigate magistrates to employ every method of extirpating the refractory, that is, all who were so unreasonable as not

to be convinced by the sound reasoning of those merciless fanatics and wretched sophisters. At first, also, the inquisitors had no tribunals; they merely inquired after heretics, their number, strength, and riches. When they had detected them, they informed the bishops, who, at that time, had the sole power of judging in ecclesiastical affairs, and whom they urged to anathematize, banish, or otherwise chastise, such heretical persons as they brought before them. Sometimes they excited princes to arm their subjects against the heretics; and, at other times, they inflamed the rabble, whom they themselves headed, to take up arms, and unite in extirpating them. Such as they could induce to devote themselves to this service, obtained the title of crusaders, and were distinguished by a cross of cloth affixed to their garments. The efforts of the inquisitors were greatly assisted by the emperor of the **Romans**, **Frederick II.**, who, in 1224, promulgated four edicts of the most ferocious and sanguinary description against heretics. These edicts were approved and confirmed by the pope, and inserted in his bulls; and, in process of time, the persecuting spirit which pervades them became gradually incorporated into the laws of almost every country in **Europe**. After the death of **Frederick**, which happened about the middle of the thirteenth century, **Pope Innocent IV.**, remaining sole arbiter of the affairs of **Lombardy** and other parts of **Italy**, set himself diligently to extirpate heresy, which, of late, had exceedingly increased; and, considering the labour which had been employed in this service by the **Franciscan** and **Dominican** friars, whose zeal, unrestrained by either respect of persons or the fear of dangers, by any regard to justice or the feelings of humanity, had recommended them highly to the pontiff, he cheerfully availed himself of their ardour to second his efforts. Preaching was found of little avail, and even the enlisting of crusaders and inflicting military

HISTORY.

execution, was suspended for the sake of erecting, in different countries, standing tribunals, armed with tremendous authority, but charged solely with the purgation of heretical pravity. To obviate an objection started against the establishment of these novel tribunals, the pope enacted that the tribunal should consist of the inquisitor and bishop of the place. The inquisitor, however, was not only to be the principal, but, in reality, every thing; and the bishop had little more than the name of judge. To give, at least, the appearance of authority to the secular powers, they were allowed to appoint the subordinate officers to the inquisition, but still subject to the approbation of the inquisitors; they were also allowed to send with the inquisitor, when he should go into the country, one of their assessors, whom the inquisitor should choose. Of all the property belonging to heretics which they should be enabled to confiscate, a third part was to go to the community, in return for which the community was to defray the whole expence of keeping the prisons, and supporting the prisoners. The infliction of the legal punishment was also vested in the magistrate, after trial and condemnation by the inquisitors; but that was so much a matter of course, and which he well knew he could not avoid executing without incurring the vengeance of the church, that, in fact, it only converted him into the executioner of a spiritual judge. Such was the footing on which "the holy office" was placed in the year 1251, in the ecclesiastical states of Italy; and it was afterwards extended to more distant provinces, and every where entrusted to the management of Dominican friars: thirty-one rules or articles, defining their jurisdiction and powers, and regulating the procedure of this spiritual court of judicature, were devised; and all rulers and magistrates were commanded, by a papal bull, issued for the purpose, to give, under pain of excommunication, the most punctual obedience, and every possible assistance

to this holy court. It was, not however, in the power of the pope to obtain the establishment of this tribunal in many of the most populous countries subject to the see of Rome. The difficulties arose partly from the conduct of the inquisitors, their inordinate severity, their unbounded extortion and avarice, and the propensity they shewed, on every occasion, to extend, beyond measure, their own authority. Indeed, under one pretext or another, they were making rapid strides to engross all the criminal jurisdiction of the magistrate; for they insisted that under the head of heresy were included infidelity, blasphemy, perjury, sorcery, poisoning, bigamy, and usury! In Spain and Portugal this scourge and disgrace of humanity existed for centuries with the most frightful aspect; in Rome it was much more tolerable. Happily for mankind, the diabolical tribunal has ceased to exist in many countries; and the final erasure of the Inquisition from the face of the earth, is a matter extremely to be desired.

INTAPHERNES, one of the seven Persian noblemen who conspired against Smerdis, who had usurped the crown of Persia. He was so disappointed, for not obtaining the crown, that he fomented seditions against Darius, who had been raised to the throne, after the death of the usurper. When the king had ordered him and all his family to be put to death, his wife, by frequently visiting the palace, excited the compassion of Darius, who pardoned her, and permitted her to redeem, from death, any one of her relations whom she pleased. She obtained her brother; and, when the king expressed his astonishment, because she preferred him to her husband and children, she replied, that she could procure another husband, and children likewise; but, that she could never have another brother, as her father and mother were dead. Intaphernes was put to death.

INTERREX, a supreme magistrate at Rome, who was intrusted with the care of the government

after the death of a king, till the election of another. This office was exercised by the senators alone, and none continued in power longer than five days, or, according to Pintarch, only twelve hours. The first interrex mentioned in Roman history, is after the death of Romulus, when the Romans quarrelled with the Sabines concerning the choice of a king. There was sometimes an interrex during the consular government; but this happened only to hold assemblies in the absence of the magistrates, or when the election of any of the acting officers was disputed.

INUNDATIONS.—The Severn overflowed, and destroyed vast quantities of cattle, in 80; the Medway overflowed its banks and drowned the country, 87; the Humber overflowed, and laid the adjacent country, for fifty miles, under water, 95; the Severn overflowed, and drowned 5,000 head of cattle, and people in their beds, 115; the Humber overflowed, 125; the Trent overflowed above twenty miles on each side of its banks, and drowned many people, 214; an inundation of the sea in Lincolnshire, which laid under water many thousand acres, 245; the Ouse in Bedfordshire overflowed, and drowned numbers of people and cattle, 250; another, which destroyed all the inhabitants in Ferne island, seven miles S. W. from Holy Island, 323; an irruption of the sea in Lancashire, 330; above 5,000 people lost in Cheshire by an irruption, 353; of the Dee, 415; an inundation at Glasgow, which drowned above 400 families, 738; an inundation of the Tweed, which did immense damage, 836; the sea overflowed 4,000 acres of earl Godwin's land, in Kent, since called Godwin Sands, 1100; a great part of Flanders overflowed by the sea, 1108; an inundation of the Thames, for above six miles, at Lambeth, &c. 1243; at Winchelsea, above 300 houses were overthrown by the sea, 1280; at the Texel, which first raised the commerce of Amsterdam, 1100; the sea broke in at Dort, and drowned seventy-two villages, and 100,000 people,

and formed the Zuyder sea, 1421; another, in 1521, in Holland; at Harushead, in Yorkshire, September 11, 1673; at Dagenham, in Essex, December 17, 1707, and continued till 1721; in Holland and Zealand, when 1300 inhabitants were drowned, 1717; and Holstein, in the same year; in Yorkshire, called Rippon-flood, May 18, 1723; in Chilli, which overflowed the city of Conception, 1730; in February 1735, at Dagenham, and upon the coast of Essex, which carried away the sea-walls, and drowned several thousand sheep and black cattle; in Holland, 1754; at Bilbao, April 1762; in France, May following, and did great damage; at Venice, at Naples, where it carried away a whole village, and drowned 200 of the inhabitants, November 10, 1773; in Calcutta, in the East Indies, 1772; at Battersea and Chelsea, March 9, 1774; in different parts of Germany, when some thousands had their houses and property destroyed, 1785; in different parts of England, in September and October, 1785; at Brighthelmston, when the blockhouse was washed down, October 9, 1786; in Spain, Navarre, September, 1787, where 2,000 lost their lives; the Liffey, which did very considerable damage in Dublin and its environs, November 12, 1787; of great extent at Piacentia, in Italy, November, 1791; in Lancashire, August, 1792; almost throughout England, by the melting of the snow, and the greatest part of the bridges either destroyed or damaged, February, 1795; at St. Domingo, which destroyed 1400 persons, October, 1800; at Past, near Presburg, by the overflow of the Danube, by which twenty-four villages with their inhabitants were swept away, April 1811; by the overflowing of the Elbe, the village of Wargen, in the duchy of Luneberg, was swept away, October, 1811; by the rising of the water in the Thames, which overflowed the houses in Palace-yard, and filled Westminster-hall, October 21, 1812; in Hungary, Austria, Silesia, and Poland, in the summer of 1813; by the overflow of the Danube, a Turkish corps of 3000 men, on a small

HISTORY.

island, near Widden, were surprised, and met with instant death, and the island itself sunk and disappeared, September 14, 1813; by the overflowing of the Drave, near Orsatch, six villages and the suburbs of a town were swept away, and a congregation of 240 persons buried beneath the ruins of a church, August 1813; in Silesia, 6000 inhabitants were destroyed, and the ruin of the French army, under Macdonald, accelerated by the floods; and, in Poland, 4000 lives lost; by the overflow of the Mississippi, the country on the west side was inundated to the distance of sixty-five miles, in June and July, 1813; by the overflow of the Narbudda river, in the province of Bengal, which swept away fifteen villages, with the houses, inhabitants, and cattle, February 12, 1814; the greatest flood ever remembered in Northumberland and Durham, February, 1816; fifty-three villages in the great Werder, forty-nine in the districts of Siegenhoff, and seventeen Elbing villages, under water in March, 1816.

INVERARY, an ancient royal burgh in the county of Aberdeen. Tradition reports that it was erected into a royal burgh by king Robert Bruce, on occasion of a signal victory obtained by him in the neighbourhood, over Comyn, earl of Buchan, the king of England's general in Scotland.

IONA, ICOLMKILL, or ICOLUMB-KILL, one of the western isles of Scotland. The college or monastery of Iona was formerly possessed of a valuable library, which has been destroyed or lost. Bothirs relates that Fergus II. who assisted the Goths under Alaric, at the sacking of Rome, brought away, as part of the plunder, a chest of manuscripts, which he presented to this monastery; and, in former times, the archives of Scotland and valuable papers were kept here.

IONIA, a country of Asia-Minor, was divided into twelve small states, which formed a celebrated confederacy, often mentioned by the ancients. These twelve states were Priene, Miletus, Colophon, Clazomenæ, Ephesus, Lebedus,

Teos, Phocæa, Erythræ, Smyrna, and the capitals of Samos and Chios. After they had enjoyed, for some time, their freedom and independence, they were made tributary to the power of Lydia by Cræsus. The Athenians assisted them to shake off the slavery of the Asiatic monarchs, but they soon forgot their duty and relation to their mother-country, and joined Xerxes when he invaded Greece. They were delivered from the Persian yoke by Alexander, and restored to their original independence. They were reduced by the Romans under the dictator Sylla.

IONIAN islands. In 1797, they were occupied by the French, by order of Bonaparte. In 1798, the French were expelled from these islands; they were then declared an independent republic under the joint protection of Turkey and Russia. By the treaty of Tilsit, in 1807, they again came into the possession of the French; in the course of the war, however, the whole fell into the hands of Great Britain, and is still under her protection.

IPSUS, a place of Phrygia, celebrated for a battle which was fought there about 301 years before the christian era, between Antigonus and his son, and Seleucus, Ptolemy, Lysimachus, and Cassander. The former led into the field an army of above 70,000 foot, and 10,000 horse, with seventy-five elephants. The latter's forces consisted of above 64,000 infantry, besides 10,500 horse, 400 elephants, and 120 armed chariots. Antigonus and his son were defeated.

IRELAND. The original inhabitants came from Galicia, and it was divided among a number of petty sovereigns.—Strongbow, earl of Pembroke, at the request of Dermot, king of Leinster, invaded Ireland, and landed near Waterford, August 23, 1170. In 1172, it surrendered to Henry II.; and in 1210 it was totally subdued. At the period of the reformation of religion in England, in 1538, a new scene disclosed itself in Ireland; and from this epoch are to be reckoned the many disasters which fell upon that country. A parlia-

ment was summoned at Dublin on the 1st of May, 1536. Though this parliament was merely a provincial assembly of the Pale, so successfully did Henry VIII. exert every device of art and power, that this parliament declared him supreme head on earth of the church of Ireland; annulled the pope's power over spiritual causes; enacted and confirmed in Ireland the English law against slandering the king on account of these innovations, and invested the king not only with the first-fruits of bishoprics, and other secular promotions in the church of Ireland, but with those of abbeys, priories, colleges, and hospitals. Every person who refused to take the oath of supremacy, was declared guilty of high-treason. The adoption of these measures drew closer the confederacy which it was meant to dissolve, and implicated the colony of the Pale in ceaseless warfare and contention with each other, and with the inhabitants of the adjacent districts. Many Irish chieftains made the defence of their religion the cause or the pretext for rising in arms against the English government; but they failed in the struggle, and were obliged to surrender to Henry. The Reformation made considerable progress among the great, but advanced more slowly, as it has ever since done, with the lower orders. About the year 1542, the English cabinet resolved to change the style of lord of Ireland to that of king; and a parliament enacted that it should be deemed high-treason to impeach that title, or to oppose the royal authority. The vindictive character of Henry VIII. and the rigour of his government having driven many of the Pale, as well as of the Irish race, to formal professions and condescensions, the authority of Edward VI., a minor king, was less esteemed or dreaded. Though the liturgy of the church of England was performed for the first time on Easter Sunday, 1551, the bulk of the nation still stedfastly adhered to their ancient faith, and the cause of religion became the cause of

the nation. The attempts to force a people to renounce the faith which they had received from St. Patrick, and to receive a new system of religion with an English ritual, naturally blended the national prejudices against English oppression, and co-operated in raising the insurrection of Tyrone. The unexpected death of Edward, and the short reign of his sister Mary, who repealed all the protestant acts of her brother and her father, and restored the ancient religion, gave a temporary respite to the troubled state of Ireland. In this reign the advantages gained by the earl of Sussex over the two most powerful septs of Leinster, the O'Moores and the O'Connors, enabled the English to extend the Pale, by converting their territories of Leix and Offaly into two counties, which, by act of parliament, were vested in the crown, and converted into shire land, the former being denominated the Queen's county, and the latter the King's county. An act of parliament was also passed for dividing all the rest of the Irish counties unreduced into several shires; and this laid open a passage for the civil government into the unsubdued parts of the kingdom. Elizabeth, having determined to establish the reformation, she immediately, on her accession, assembled a parliament in Ireland, and, after completely reversing the whole system of Mary, renewed, with vigour, the rigorous and impolitic measures of Henry. The adoption of these measures convulsed the whole kingdom for several years, and occasioned the internal feuds and wars of the chieftains with each other, and the grand insurrection of O'Neal. The latter part of Elizabeth's reign was a continued scene of the most disastrous war, famine, and desolation. A general system of rebellion, to shake off the English government, was organized in Ireland about 1596; and the most formidable of the rebel chiefs was O'Neal, who, disdaining the title of Tyrone, had assumed the rank and appellation of king of Ulster, and received a supply of arms

and ammunition from Spain. At length, this rebellion was terminated by the submission of Tyrone, who renounced the name of O'Neal, with all his former pretensions to independence, authority, and sovereignty. James I. was the first monarch who extended the legislative as well as the juridical power of England beyond the pale. In short, the conduct of this monarch estranged the affections of his Irish subjects from the English government, and reduced them to want and misery. Charles I., at the commencement of his inauspicious reign, sent instructions, favourable to the Catholics, to lord Falkland, who was at that time deputy of Ireland, and who faithfully obeyed the orders of the king. Falkland so irritated the puritans, that they beset the English cabinet with complaints of his administration, and the king sacrificed a faithful servant to the intrigues of enemies. The administration was now intrusted to two lords-justices, viscount Ely, the chancellor, and the earl of Cork, the lord-high-treasurer of that kingdom, who fell, at once, with great severity on the recusants, and again adopted a system of terrorism towards the Catholics. In 1633, the lords-justices were succeeded in the government of Ireland by lord Wentworth, afterwards earl of Strafford. The tyrannical government of this nobleman gave so much offence, and was so impetuous and unjust, that the Irish determined not to address themselves to the king, but to apply to a power, then daily growing greater than the king's, that of the English House of Commons. Strafford, relying on the king's power and promise of protection, repaired to London, and resigned himself to the power of an incensed parliament. He was accordingly impeached, and suffered death as a traitor. In every quarter of the kingdom, and in every department of government, the puritans found means to foment and raise what they called a popish rebellion. At length, on the 23d of October, 1641, the lords-justices issued a

proclamation, which declared, "that a discovery had been made of a most disloyal and detestable conspiracy, intended by some evil-affected Irish papists, universally throughout the kingdom." The leaders of the rebellion principally confined their attacks to the English settlements, and left the Scotch planters unmolested. At first, O'Neal declared that he acted by authority of the English parliament, and afterwards that he had the king's commission for taking up arms. It is, however, certain, that at the hour of his execution he persisted in a solemn disavowal of ever having received any commission from the king for levying or prosecuting the war. The dreadful scenes of massacre and slaughter which now followed, are disgraceful and disgusting in the extreme; and humanity shudders at the horrid description of revengeful retaliation which is attributed to the Irish under O'Neal. Many modern writers describe the massacre as a political exaggeration, circulated at the time, and for half a century afterwards, for the purpose of keeping up an animosity against the Catholics. Doubtless, however, an atrocious massacre did take place of many Protestant families, but it was not so general as was represented, and the numbers who suffered may be safely reduced from 100,000 to 10,000 at most. Charles, considering the circumstances of this general confederacy of the Catholics in Ireland, signed a commission, on the 14th of January, 1642, appointing the marquis of Ormond, the earls of Clanrickard and Roscommon, viscount Moore, sir Thomas Lucas, sir Maurice Eustace, and Thomas Bourke, esq., to meet the principal confederates, who had petitioned the king to listen to their grievances, to receive from them in writing what they had to propose. However, Ormond being immoderately ambitious, vindictive, haughty, and impatient of controul, was induced, by his implacable hatred to the Catholics, not only to contravene the commands and wishes of his

royal master, but even basely to execute the orders of the king's determined enemies. Notwithstanding the conduct of Ormond, the Catholic confederates sent over so many and such seasonable supplies to Charles, and these troops behaved with so much zeal and valour in the royal cause, that on the 24th of October, 1644, the English parliament published this bloody ordinance, "That no quarter should be given to any Irishman, or papist born in Ireland, who should be taken in hostility against the parliament, either upon sea, or in England, or Wales." Such was still the virulence of Ormond against the Catholics, and such also his sway over his royal master, that he delayed the peace, in opposition to the king's positive commands, till this measure was rendered unavailing by the cessation of the exercise of the royal authority, after the imprisonment of the king's person, in 1646.—When Charles was held in captivity by the Scots, Ormond not only resisted the pressing invitations of the Catholic confederates to lead them against the king's enemies, but even determined to surrender up the royal cause altogether, and basely entered into terms with the commissioners of the parliamentarians, by which he gave up his sword, the castle, and the king's authority, and retired to England, whence he fled to France. After being thus indignantly forced into exile, by those very enemies of the king, to whom he had made the base and mercenary surrender of his high trust, dignity, and power, Ormond now strove to use the unshaken loyalty and severely tried attachment of the king's best friends as the instruments of his own revenge. The marquis arrived in Ireland from France on the 29th of September, 1648, but did not conclude a peace with the confederates till the 17th of January, 1649, a fortnight before the tragical end of the unfortunate Charles. Ormond now suffered a variety of fortunes. Cromwell took Drogheda by storm, and continued the slaughter for two days. At Wexford he exercised similar cruelties, and followed up the advantage

which his butcheries obtained for him in the consternation of the Irish. Town after town, and fortress after fortress, fell into the possession of the parliamentarians, till at length all Ireland, with the exception of the province of Connaught, was in the power of the rebels, under the command of Ireton, whom Cromwell had appointed general-in-chief upon his return to England, where then his views of ambition directed the display of his subtle energies. Ormond quitted Ireland; and left the wreck of his powers to lord Clanrickard, who at length retired from this country. Cromwell sent his son Henry into Ireland to sound the disposition of the army, and to reconcile men's minds to the usurpation. On the death of Oliver, Richard Cromwell confirmed his brother Henry in the government of Ireland, by the new title of lieutenant. Henry exerted himself with vigour to support the tottering power of his brother; but, after the abdication of Richard Cromwell, Charles II. was proclaimed with every manifestation of joy in all the great towns of Ireland. The situation of Ireland at the restoration in 1660, is more easily described than credited; a people who had continued in arms staunch to the royal cause nearly three years longer than any other part of the British empire, reduced to two-thirds of their population by their contests with the regicides, by massacres, famine, and pestilence, expatriated at home, penned up like hunted beasts in the devastated wilds of Connaught, and divested of the remnants of their ancient inheritances. If ever Ireland had a call of gratitude on the crown of England, it was at the restoration of Charles II.; and yet the first legislators, after the restoration was established, confirmed the rebellious regicides in the wages of their sanguinary rebellion. Notwithstanding the king's declaration, the Irish Catholics were excluded from the general indemnity. Ormond was reinstated in the government of Ireland, and framed the king's declaration, and the acts of settlement and explanation; and, it is said, "that his

HISTORY.

grace and his family, by the forfeitures and punishment of the Irish, were the greatest gainers in the kingdom." On the accession of James II. to the throne of England, Ormond was succeeded in the government of Ireland by the earl of Clarendon. The earl of Tyrconnel was appointed commander-in-chief of the army, and made independent of the lord-lieutenant. This and other proceedings in favour of the Catholics alarmed the Protestant part of the kingdom; and most of the traders, and those whose fortunes were transferable, fled from the country. The distracted state of this unhappy kingdom, at the period of the revolution in 1688, can scarcely be described. The Protestants in the north proclaimed William and Mary, which was deemed an act of rebellion by Tyrconnel and the Catholics. James, who had repaired to the court of Louis XIV., sailed from Brest with a strong armament, landed at Kinsale, in March, 1689, and proceeded to Dublin, where he was received as king with great pomp and solemnity. After summoning a parliament, which met at Dublin, the Protestants in the north supported the cause of the revolutionists against the forces of James, till the arrival of an English army of 40,000 men, under count Schomberg, which was afterwards commanded by William in person. A dreadful civil war now took place; but, at length, the battle of the Boyne, on the 1st of July, 1690, turned the scale of the kingdom, and gave to William III. the crown of Ireland. James fled precipitately to Dublin, and from thence to Waterford, where a frigate was ready to convey him back to France; and the Irish army, under Tyrconnel and Sarsfield, after a very vigorous resistance, at length surrendered the town of Limerick, which was their last hold, on the 3d of October, 1691. The Irish subjects outlawed for the rebellion of 1688, amounted to 300,978, and their Irish possessions comprised 1,600,000,782 acres. The unexpected death of the duke of Gloucester in 1701, and the death of James, gave rise to the act by which the

crown was settled on the house of Hanover. Queen Anne laid the severest restrictions upon her Catholic subjects in Ireland, on whom she imposed a code of penal laws of unparalleled rigour. During the reign of George I., so loyal were the people of Ireland to the illustrious family on the throne, that not even the intriguing Alberoni, the Spanish monarch, the Catholic pretender, nor his enthusiastic and desperate supporter, Ormond, dared to attempt to seduce them from their allegiance. Towards the end of the reign of George II. in 1760, the French landed at Carrickfergus; but, intimidated by the valour and loyalty of the Irish, they were obliged to re-embark, and finally submitted to the English, who engaged them at sea with a small squadron. At the period of the accession of George III., the situation of Ireland was truly gloomy. The acts of the British parliament, sanctioned by his majesty, fully and finally established the independence of Ireland in 1782, in legislating for herself, to the universal joy of the whole kingdom. In June 1791, a paper was circulated in Dublin, containing the design of an association to be called the society of United Irishmen at Belfast; and the Roman Catholics published a declaration of their tenets and pretensions, which they circulated through the kingdom, in order to remove prejudices, and spirit up the exertions of their friends. In November following, a similar society of United Irishmen was established at Dublin; and to their declaration a test was annexed. In 1792, the question of Catholic emancipation was blended and confused with the absurd jargon of jacobinism; and the restless spirit of insurrection incited the unhappy Irish Catholics to acts of madness and folly. From the period of the recal of earl Fitzwilliam, in 1795, the various societies and associations throughout Ireland began their active and secret operations against the government. At length the smothered flame of rebellion burst forth, and produced horrors painful to narrate. The fomenters of this un-

natural warfare had obtained a promise from the French of aiding them in their designs. A large armament, designed for the invasion of Ireland, sailed from Brest on the 8th of December, 1796; but this expedition being scattered by a storm, was obliged to return to France. In 1797, the directory dispatched agents to France, to press the acceleration of French assistance; and great preparations were made at Brest and in the Texel for a second attempt. However, this plan was rendered abortive by the ever-memorable victory of the 11th of October, gained over the Dutch fleet by the gallant lord Duncan. On the 22d of May 1798, lord Castlereagh presented a message to the Irish house of commons that his excellency had received information of the plots which were organizing, and that he had adopted every military precaution. From this period the rebellion spread itself in all directions, and a succession of horrors ensued, over which we are desirous, for the credit of human nature, that a veil of oblivion may be for ever spread. In August, the French detached a small force under the command of general Humbert, who landed at Killala, of which he made himself master, and mounted over the castle gate a green flag, with the inscription, "Erin go Brah!" At Ballina he was joined by many hundreds, who received arms and uniforms; and, advancing to Castlebar, he defeated the king's troops, who retreated to Tuam. The marquis Cornwallis, who had succeeded lord Camden as viceroy, marched in person against the enemy; and general Humbert, finding himself surrounded by the English forces, surrendered himself and his troops prisoners of war. The insurgents being excluded from quarter, fled in all directions, and were pursued with great slaughter. With the conquest of this army of invaders, and their expulsion from Ireland, ended the rebellion of 1798. And, on the 1st of January, 1801, the union of Great Britain and Ireland was signed. During the past and present year (1822) the most aggravated dis-

tresses have pervaded and agitated this country. In 1821, it was visited by George IV. which afforded some temporary hope for the foundation of a more permanent system. Earl Talbot having resigned the lord-lieutenancy, he was succeeded by marquis Wellesley in 1821. The hopes, however, which have been held out by these events have not, as yet, been realized; but it is to be hoped some measures will speedily be devised for the improvement of all the civil and political institutions.

IROQUOIS, or the **SIX NATIONS**, a confederacy of Indian nations. In the American war, they were allies of Great Britain; and in 1779 they were entirely defeated by the troops of Congress, and their towns all destroyed.

IRUN, a small town in the north of Spain, in Guipuscoa. On the 31 of August 1813, a Spanish force, stationed here to cover the siege of St. Sebastian, was attacked by the French, and obliged to retire.

ISLAY, **ILAY**, or **ILA**, one of the Hebrides. From the dominion of the Danes and Norwegians, Islay came into the possession of the lords of the Isles, who kept it till the reign of James III. When their powers were abolished, the Macdonalds became the proprietors of it. In consequence of an invasion of the island by the Macleans and Macleods, countenanced by James VI., Sir James Macdonald, the proprietor, was defeated. The property of Islay was then transferred to sir John Campbell of Caldee, a great court favourite.

ISMAIL, or **ISMAILOR**, a large and strong town of Bessarabia. This place is memorable in history for its siege by the Russians in 1790; its garrison was very numerous, and a large quantity of military stores, as well as treasure, had been collected in it as a place of security. The Russian army having made little progress in the siege during the autumn, Suwarow was sent to direct the operations, with orders to effect the reduction of the place at any sacrifice. The able commander was here in a situation similar to that of Suchet, before Tarragona, in

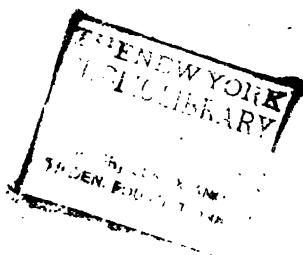
HISTORY.

1811: he perceived that assaults were the only effectual means of success, and that he must prompt his army to the most dangerous, and even destructive attempts, by promising them the sack of the town. He sent a peremptory summons to the Turkish garrison to surrender. The answer of the Pacha was, that the Danube should stop short in its course sooner than Ismail be given up to the Russians: yet Suwarrow sent a second, and eventually a third summons, that he might make the opposing general consider him in the light of a madman. At last, at five o'clock in the morning, on the 23d of December, the troops, in number 40,000, advanced in nine columns, six on the land-side, and three from the shipping in the river. The Turks were on their guard; and after allowing the assailants to come within 100 yards, opened a dreadful fire of grape-shot; the Russians pushed on, and attempted to climb the ramparts. —The regular troops succeeded, and the whole Russian army was formed on the ramparts by eight o'clock. It was then that a close conflict began: the Turks were full of courage, and in numbers formed also an army. Six hours were passed in fighting and in carnage, before Ismail fell completely into the hands of the Russians. Of the Turks, about 20,000 were killed, and 10,000 made prisoners: the Russians lost 5000 men on the day of capture, and twice that number in the previous operations. The town being given up to pillage, the inhabitants were exposed to outrage, and even to massacre, during three days; the plunder was immense.

ISSUS, now **AISSE**, a town of Cilicia, on the confines of Syria, famous for a battle fought there between Alexander the Great and the Persians, under Darius their king, in October, B. C. 333, in consequence of which it was called Nicopolis. In this battle the Persians lost, in the field of battle, 100,000 foot and 10,000 horse, and the Macedonians only 300 foot and 150 horse, according to Diodorus

Siculus. The Persian army, according to Justin, consisted of 400,000 foot, and 100,000 horse, and 61,000 of the former and 10,000 of the latter were left dead on the spot, and 40,000 were taken prisoners. The loss of the Macedonians, as he farther adds, was no more than 150 foot and 150 horse. According to Curtius, the Persians slain amounted to 100,000 foot and 10,000 horse; and those of Alexander to thirty-two foot and 150 horse killed, and 504 wounded. This spot is likewise famous for the defeat of Niger by Severus.

ITALY, a celebrated country of Europe, bounded by the Adriatic and Tyrrhene Seas, and by the Alpine mountains. It has borne, at different periods, the different names of Saturnia, Enotria, Hesperia, Ausonia, and Tyrrhenia, and it received the name of Italy either from Italus, a king of the country, or from Italos, a Greek word, which signifies an ox, an animal very common in that part of Europe. The boundaries of Italy appear to have been formed by nature itself, which seems to have been particularly careful in supplying this country with whatever may contribute not only to the support, but also to the pleasures and luxuries of life. It has been called the garden of Europe; and the panegyric which Pliny bestows upon it seems not in any degree exaggerated. The ancient inhabitants called themselves Aborigines, offspring of the soil, and the country was soon after peopled by colonies from Greece. Italy has been the mother of arts as well as of arms, and the immortal monuments which remain of the eloquence and poetical abilities of its inhabitants are universally known. The early part of the history of this country is, however, involved in great obscurity. The first light thrown on this land of darkness was by the settlement of Greek colonies in the south of Italy, where they eventually occupied a large track of country, called Magna Græcia. The annals of Rome are said to go back 750 years B. C. (See *Rome*.) Italy continued sub-



THE NEW YORK
PUBLIC LIBRARY

ASTOR LENOX AND
TILDEN FOUNDATION

rest to one power for more than 800 years; and it was not till towards the close of the fifth century that the Goths crossed the barriers of the Alps. Towards the year 750, the Lombards entered the north of Italy, took Milan and Pavia, and founded a monarchical state, which continued during two centuries, until overthrown by Charlemagne. After his death, Italy belonged, possibly, to his successors on the imperial throne; but their tenure was precarious; the great barons labouring to assert their independence, and the popes to extend their temporal dominions. The subsequent history is little more than a succession of military struggles, of little interest, until 960, when Otto I. repaired, in person, to the north of Italy, granted municipal rights to the cities, and improved the interior government in general. The whole was united to the German empire; but from this compact all fresh feuds and commotions followed; the Italian nobility were jealous of their privileges; conspiracies were formed, detected and suppressed, and no constant allegiance was exhibited to the German government, or the magistracy put into authority by it. A series of wars continued for several ages, till the fourteenth century, when Italy was divided into the kingdom of Naples, the estates of the Church, Tuscany, Parma, and Lombardy, the Genoese, and the Venetian territories. For two centuries, the Venetians and Genoese were the most considerable commercial people in Europe, and Venice, in particular, held large foreign colonies; and, in 1104, took Constantinople, and held in sovereignty, what now constitutes Turkey in Europe. The foundation of the temporal power of the popes was laid about 1080, by Matilda, countess of Tuscany; who bequeathed a large portion of her dominions to pope Gregory VII. Since that time, the popes have possessed great power in the states of Europe; but, in 1798, Rome was taken by Berthier, and Bonaparte annexed the pope's territories to France. The pope was, however, restored to his dominions

in 1814. (*See Genoa, Milan, Piedmont, Rome, &c.*)

succession.		A. D.
Odoacer, chief of the Heruli		476
Theodoric the Ostrogoth		493
Athalaric		526
Theodatus		534
Vitiges		536
Theodebald		540
Araric		541
Totila, or Baduilla		541
Teia, the last of the Goths		553
Narses, governor		554
Alboinus, the Lombard		568
Cleophis		572
Interregnum of twelve years, in which the Lombards were governed by dukes		574
Antharis		586
Agilulfus		590
Adelwaldus, with his mother		616
Theodolinda		
Arivaldus		626
Rotharis		636
Rodoaldus		634
Aribert I.		650
Pertharitus		
Gondibert		662
Grimoald		663
Garibald		672
Pertharitus, restored		673
Cunibert, his son		680
Cunibert, alone		691
Luipertus		701
Ragimbertus		701
Aribert II.		702
Ansprandus		713
Luitprandus		713
Hildebrand		743
Ratchis, duke of Friuli		744
Astulfus		750
Desiderius, or Didier		756
In 774, Desiderius, the last of the Lombards, was taken prisoner by Charlemagne; and the kingdom of Italy was united, first to France, and afterwards to the Empire, till 888, when it was separated from the latter, on the death of Charles the Fat.		
Guy, and Berenger I.		888
Lambert		896
Louis		899
Berenger I. restored		904
Rodolph, king of Burgundy		922
Hugh, king of Arles		926
Lothario		947
Berenger II.		950
In 963, Berenger was deposed, through the interest of pope Leo VIII, and next year the empire		

ror Otho I. reduced Italy, and reunited it to the empire; it so continued till 1805, when Bonaparte revived the ancient title of king of Italy.

IVICA, or **IBICA**, an island of the Mediterranean, belonging to Spain. It fell into the hands of the Spaniards in 1294, and submitted to sir John Leake, with a British squadron, during the succession-war in 1706. It has generally followed the fortunes of its greater neighbours Majorca and Minorca.

JAFFA, a town of Palestine, near the coast of the Mediterranean, called anciently Joppa. In 1799, Jaffa being taken by Bonaparte, became the scene of that massacre of prisoners, of which so many reports have been spread. According to sir Robert Wilson, four days after its surrender, 3800 were led to a field near the town, and publicly shot. Dr. Clarke, in walking along the sand, saw the fragments of bodies imperfectly buried; but he did not hear of the massacre, and was inclined to discredit it. Bonaparte afterwards acknowledged, to lord Elrington and Mr. Warden, that it took place to the extent of 500; and he justified it on the ground that these were Naplousian prisoners, who, after being taken and dismissed on parole, had joined the garrison of Jaffa.

JAHJOU, a town of Hindostan, province of Agra. It is celebrated from two famous battles having been fought in its vicinity, the first between Aurungzebe and his brother Dara Shekeh, in 1658; the other between Shah Alum and Aazim Shah, in 1707.

JAMAICA, one of the West India islands, belonging to Great Britain. It was discovered by Columbus, in 1494. A Spanish colony was established on it in 1509, nearly all the establishments of which were abandoned in 1655. In 1598, sir Anthony Shirley invaded and plundered the island; and, about forty years afterwards, it was again plundered by a party of English under colonel Jackson. In 1655, Jamaica was taken by the English, under the command of Penn and Venables. It was after-

wards settled by 3000 British soldiers, disbanded from the parliamentary army, and these were followed by 1500 royalists. In 1785, a war commenced between the maroons, the slaves of the Spanish settlers, and the white inhabitants, when the barbarous expedient of blood-hounds being resorted to, for the purpose of tracing the haunts of the negroes, they were at last compelled to surrender, at discretion, to their enemies the whites.

JAMES I., king of Scotland, was born in 1394. At the age of eleven his father sent him to France; but, falling into the hands of the English, he and his retinue were confined in the Tower, where, however, the young prince received an excellent education. After an imprisonment of eighteen years, James was sent home to Scotland, having previously married Joanna Beaufort, daughter of the duchess of Clarence. He was murdered by his uncle, Walter earl of Athol, and Robert Graham, Feb. 20, 1437.—**JAMES III.**, king of Scotland, succeeded to the throne in 1460. He was defeated at the battle of Bannockburn; in his flight he was thrown from his horse, and carried to a hovel, where he was stabbed by one of the insurgents.—**JAMES IV.** succeeded to the throne in 1487. He was killed at the memorable battle of Flodden-Field, in 1513.—**JAMES VI.**, king of Scotland, and first of England, was the son of the unfortunate Mary, by her cousin lord Darnley, and born at Edinburgh, in June 1566. He had Buchanan for his instructor, who, when accused of having made his pupil a pedant, replied, "That he could do nothing better with him." In 1589, he married Anne, daughter of Frederic king of Denmark, whom he fetched himself from Copenhagen, and, while there, visited Tycho Brahe. In 1600, while hunting, an attempt was made to seize his person by the earl of Gowrie, who with his brother was slain, and the king escaped unhurt. In 1603, he succeeded to the English throne; and, the year following, was held

in his presence the Hampton Court conference, between the divines of the established church and the puritans, which terminated in favour of the former. The next year a plot was formed by some desperate Romanists to blow up the king and parliament, at the opening of the session; but it was providentially detected; as also was a conspiracy entered into by lord Cobham and others, to place Arabella Stuart on the throne. The death of Raleigh was the greatest blot on the character and reign of James, who also lessened his popularity by undertaking the defence of the protestants in Germany, and then abandoning their cause. He died in March 1625.

JAMES II., king of England, succeeded his brother Charles II.; in 1685, a conspiracy, set on foot by the duke of Monmouth, was the first disturbance in his reign. Monmouth had ever been the darling of the people, and some averred that Charles had married his mother, and owned Monmouth's legitimacy at his death. The duke of Argyle seconded his views in Scotland, and they formed the scheme of a double insurrection; so that while Monmouth should attempt to make a rising in the west, Argyle was also to try his endeavours in the north. Argyle's followers, however, were defeated, and himself taken prisoner; and afterwards conveyed to Edinburgh, where he was publicly executed. Monmouth, likewise, was unsuccessful, after having been on the point of victory. He fled on foot, from the field of battle; and was at last found in a field in a most deplorable state of wretchedness. He was followed to the scaffold with great compassion from the populace, and was executed in a most disgraceful manner. After the death of Monmouth, the most savage cruelties were exercised on the prisoners taken by the victorious army, in which the infamous judge Jeffries bore a conspicuous part.—James, after unjustly summoning bishops, and suspending preachers of the church of England,

sent an ambassador to Rome, in order to express his obedience to the pope. The Jesuits were allowed to establish themselves in the kingdom; and applications were made by him, to the universities, for the admission of some papists, which were met with a resolute rejection. This, and other refusals of compliance with his tyrannical will, led to the trial of the seven bishops, the acquittal of whom was ominous of the fate of James. He had now incurred the most violent hatred of his subjects; and the landing of the prince of Orange, at this critical conjuncture, induced the king to seek safety by flight. He was received by the king of France with great respect, by whom he was soon after supplied with a fleet, for the invasion of Ireland. Here he resolved to hazard a battle for the recovery of his kingdom; but, being entirely overthrown on the banks of the Boyne, he fled a second time into France. Another armament was fitted out for him, which engaged the English and Dutch off La Hogue, on the 19th of May, 1692, and after a bloody contest of ten hours, victory declared in favour of the English; and hence all the hopes of James vanished. He died at St. Germain, in France, on the 7th September, 1701.

JAMESTOWN, a town of the United States, in Virginia. In the year 1781, here was a skirmish between the Americans, under Fayette, and the British under lord Cornwallis, in which the former were defeated.

JAPAN is said to have been founded by Sin-onu, an ecclesiastic, about 660 B. C., and, in 1188, Jerotimo put an end to the supreme ecclesiastic authority, and became the first secular monarch of Japan. In 1598, the Laqueo islands were conquered by the Japanese.

JARNAC, or **JARNAC-CHARENTE**; a small town in the west of France. It is famous for a battle fought between the Catholics, under the duke of Anjou (afterwards Henry III.) and the Protestants, commanded by the prince

HISTORY.

of Conde and admiral De Coligni, on the 16th March, 1569.

JEAN DE LOSNE, LONE, or LOANE, ST. a small town of Burgundy. It is celebrated in French history from the bravery shewn by the inhabitants in 1635, in shutting their gates, and opposing the imperial general, count Gallas, at the head of a large army.

JEFFREYS (lord George), baron Wem, was born at Acton in Denbighshire. He was not regularly called to the bar, but being at Kingston assizes in the plague year, 1666, when there were scarcely any counsellors present, he was induced to plead, and from that time continued to do so, without having his title questioned. In 1683, he was made chief-justice of the King's bench. At the accession of James II. he was created baron Jeffreys of Wem, in the county of Salop; and, on the suppression of the duke of Monmouth's rebellion, he was sent to try the prisoners in the west, where he committed shocking cruelties, under the pretence of law; for which, at his return, he was constituted lord-chancellor of England. When the prince of Orange arrived, Jeffreys, knowing his unpopularity, endeavoured to escape in the disguise of a seaman, but was detected in Wapping, carried before the council, and committed to the Tower, where he died, April 18, 1689.

JEMMINGEN, or **JEMGUM**, a small town of East Friesland, now subject to Hanover. At this place, in an early period of the discontents of the Netherlands, Louis of Nassau was defeated with great loss by the duke of Alva, in 1568.

JENGHIS-KHAN, or "the greatest Khan of Khana," emperor of the Moguls, founded his empire in 1206, which he at length extended over the greatest part of the known world. He had from his childhood been engaged in the service of Prester John, great khan of Tartary; who, at the instigation of some of his courtiers, whose envy he had excited, resolved to throw him into irons: Tamujin, however, apprised of his designs, contrived to elude them,

and became afterwards his conqueror. He permitted the leading men of a particular tribe of Moguls, who had exerted themselves more than any others in his favour, to contract a perpetual alliance by intermarriages with his own family. In the mean time, a Mogul khan, or emir, one day returned to the victor's camp, protesting, that God had declared to him, "I have given the whole earth to Tamujin, and his posterity, and have named him Jenghis-Khan." In consequence of which declaration it was, that he assumed the name of Jenghis-Khan; and great crowds of people joined him from all quarters. A recognition of his authority, by most of the Turkish tribes, immediately followed. The massacre of some Mogul merchants dispatched by him on commercial business, by Mohammed Khowarazm Shah, was the first event that called him forth to the glorious career of arms. He was so incensed at this conduct of the shah of Khowarazm, that he fasted and prayed to Almighty God three days and nights, without intermission, on the top of a hill, with his head uncovered, imploring the divine assistance against so faithless and perfidious a prince. The third night, a monk appeared to him in a dream, and promised him success in all his undertakings. He communicated the omen to a bishop, who told his majesty, that the person seen by him was undoubtedly one of the christian saints. From this time the conqueror was always kind to Christians, and treated them with particular marks of affection and esteem. Khowarazm was, accordingly, soon surprised by a dreadful irruption of the Moguls into his territories; under the conduct of Jenghis-Khan. The army of Moguls besieged the city of Bekhara, then defended by a garrison of 20,000 men; reduced it, and afterwards laid it in ashes. Jenghis-Khan likewise sent a detachment of 20,000 men to pursue sultan Mohammed, who had fled, by way of the Amu, to the country of Teemed, and he pushed on his conquests in that prince's territories with sur-

prising rapidity. He next advanced to Balkh, the principal inhabitants of which he cruelly massacred. From Balkh he marched to Talakan, and possessed himself of that fortress. He took Al Bamiyan, and put all the people he found in the town to the sword, without distinction of rank or sex. He did not so much as spare the cattle or beasts of burden belonging to the place; unborn infants he tore from their mothers, and, with savage fury, cut them to pieces: after which barbarities, he entirely destroyed the city, and laid waste the surrounding country. The devastation made by the great Khan, was like that of a thunder-bolt bursting over several countries at once, involving them in flames and ruin. Never were the military exploits of any conqueror so destructive. His generals rushed on every part of the whole empire of Karam at once, and enveloped it in one common conflagration. To keep his troops in action during the winter, Jenghis-Khan ordered great hunting-matches to be made on his extensive plains. After the death of Mohammed, Jalaloddin, his son, was appointed emperor of Karam, and proceeded against Jenghis-Khan, as the avenger of his father. He was, however, defeated, and reduced to the utmost distress; but afterwards retrieved his fortunes, and fought several successful battles against Jenghis. Kandahar, Multan, and Gazna, fell before the victorious arms of the Moguls. While Jenghis-Khan on one side of his empire had fixed the Indus as its limit, his lieutenants on the other subjugated Persia, inclosed the Caspian within his dominion, and carried their victorious arms as far as Iconium. On the other hand, Muhli, his lieutenant-general in China, acquired much reputation in the war which he maintained against the emperor of the Kin, and the king of Hya. In the year 1225, the emperor Jenghis-Khan arrived at the river Tula, after an absence of seven years. In the next year, Jenghis reduced the kingdom of Hya, after it had continued 200 years under its own princes.

This triumph was followed by others; all his enterprises were crowned with victory. Prosperity, indeed, never deserted him, even to his death. He was desirous of completing the conquest of the Kin empire; but he fell sick before he could accomplish this purpose, and died at the age of seventy, A. D. 1227. Jenghis-Khan on the whole merited respect and esteem, by his extraordinary talents. Besides all the qualities and virtues requisite in a great conqueror, he possessed a genius capable of forming great designs, and prudence equal to their execution; a natural and persuasive eloquence; a degree of patience enabling him to endure and overcome fatigue; and admiral temperance; a superior understanding, and a penetrating mind, that instantly conceived the measure proper to be adopted on every occasion. He granted the most extensive toleration to all his subjects, and even some of his own children, and princes of the blood, were Christians. To banish idleness out of his dominions, he obliged every one of his subjects to serve the public in some employment. Spies, false witnesses, and sorcerers, were by his laws condemned to death. The same punishment was awarded against those who attempted to plunder an enemy, before the general's leave had been obtained. Unfortunately, however, in this reign, leave was never refused. All Jenghis-Khan's generals were sanguinary and inexorable. According to the most moderate calculation, not fewer than 2,000,000 of men fell beneath the murdering sword, without reckoning the number that affliction, and the horrors of slavery, consigned to the grave. It is said that during his reign, 50,000 cities were demolished; some of them entirely desolated, the very vestiges of which scarcely remain. Such are the melancholy fruits of victories, such the memorials that warriors leave behind them!

JENA, battle of, between the French and the Prussians, on the 14th of October, 1806. The night preceding this great event, pre-

HISTORY.

sented a remarkable spectacle: two great armies, one of which extended its front upon a line of six hours march, and illuminated the air with its lights; the other appeared more condensed, the lights of which seemed to be brought nearly into one point; in both, all was watchfulness and motion. The lights of the two armies were at half cannon-shot distance only; their centinels almost met; and not a single motion on either side, but what could be perfectly heard by the other. A thick fog obscured the morning. Napoleon, passing before the different lines, commanded the soldiers to take care of the Prussian cavalry, which was reputed the best in the world; and stated "that the Prussians at that moment did not fight for glory, but for a retreat; and that the corps of the French army which should let them pass, would lose its honour;" he also reminded them that a year had not elapsed since Ulm was taken; that the Prussian army, now before them, like the Austrians at that period, was surrounded, had been driven from its line of operations, and had lost its magazines. To this military harangue, the soldiers replied, "let us onward." The Prussian army, in the mean while, had no other view than to engage as soon as the fog should clear up. A body of 50,000 men posted itself, to cover the defiles of Naumburg, and to gain possession of the passes of Koesen; but the design of this movement was frustrated by marshal Davoust. The rest of the Prussian force, consisting of about 80,000 strong, was placed opposite to the army of the French, which was opening out from the level height of Jena. The fog continued for the space of two hours, but at last cleared up; and the hostile armies beheld each other at a distance less than cannon-shot. The left wing of the French supporting itself against a village and a wood, was commanded by marshal Augereau. The imperial guard opened its fire at the centre, which was supported by marshal Lasnes: the right wing was drawn together out of the corps of marshal Soult,

who had left only a small body of 2,000 men; partly composed of troops which had arrived from his light corps. The Prussian army, which seems to have consisted of about 130,000 men, displayed a fine cavalry, and fought with great bravery. The king of Prussia had two horses shot under him. Their manœuvres were correctly and rapidly executed; but they were at last thrown into dreadful confusion. The French dragoons and cuirassiers, with the duke of Berg at their head, bore the Prussian cavalry and infantry down before them. In vain, did the Prussians form themselves into a square; five of their battalions, cavalry, infantry, and artillery, were all taken. On the right wing, marshal Davoust was completely successful, constantly fighting for the space of three hours; he pursued the great body of the Prussians from the defiles of Koesen. The battle was sanguinary in the extreme; 250,000, or probably 300,000 men, of which the two armies were composed, with 700 or 800 pieces of artillery, scattered death in every direction, and exhibited one of the most awful scenes recorded in history. The result was the most decisive in favour of the French that could be imagined; the loss of the Prussians, according to the bulletins of the French, was above 20,000 killed and wounded, and from 30,000 to 40,000 prisoners, with 300 pieces of cannon, sixty standards, and immense magazines of warlike stores and provisions. The duke of Brunswick was mortally wounded, and expired a few days afterwards, at Altena; above twenty of the Prussian generals were taken prisoners.

JENKINS, (sir Leoline,) a statesman, was born at Llantrissant, in Glamorganshire, in 1623. In 1672, he was sent as ambassador to treat of a peace with the Dutch, but without success. He was afterwards at the treaty of Nimeguen, in conjunction with sir William Temple, whom he succeeded as ambassador at the Hague. After his return to England he was sworn a privy-councillor, and made

secretary-of-state; which office he resigned in 1684, and died Sept. 1, 1685.

JEROME of Prague, a Bohemian reformer; was the scholar of Wicliffe and John Hus; who began to publish their doctrines in 1406. In 1415, he was examined before the council of Constance, when John Hus was prisoner there; and published, that he came to defend the doctrine of his master. But he fled quickly after, and was met upon the frontiers of Bohemia, and carried back to the council, where he abjured, Sept. 23, 1415, and soon after disappeared. After this he was re-taken near Bohemia, and conducted to Constance; where having persisted still in his opinion, he was delivered into the hands of the magistrate, and burnt, May 30, 1416.

JERUSALEM, or **HIEROSOLYMA**, a celebrated city of Palestine, the capital of Judæa, and said to have been the Salem, of which Melchisedech was the founder and king. It was sometimes called Jebus, from having been possessed by the Jebusites, from whom it was taken by king David. Solomon built several temples at Jerusalem. After his death, Shishack, or Sesostris, king of Egypt, took the city, and plundered it, during Rehoboam's reign, A. M. 3004. Joash king of Israel took it again, under the reign of Amaziah king of Judah, A. M. 3210; as did the Assyrians in the time of Manasseh, about 3361; and Nebuchadnezzar king of Babylon, under the reign of Jehoiachin, A. M. 3436. This Babylonian king left Zedekiah in it, whom he settled as sovereign. But, being dissatisfied with his conduct, he returned to Jerusalem with a formidable army, and besieged and took the city, A. M. 3446. The Assyrians made themselves absolute masters, and put all to the sword. Nebuzardan burnt the king's palace, demolished the walls, and ruined the whole city. In 3516, Cyrus sent the captive Jews back to Judæa, who rebuilt Jerusalem and the Temple. In 3619, Alexander the Great captured the city; and in 3629, Ptolemy Lagus took it

by surprise, and carried many of the Jews into Egypt. This city was again re-taken and pillaged by Antiochus Epiphanes, A. R. 586, and A. M. 3885; but it was soon recovered by Judas Maccabæus. It was again taken by Pompey, A. R. 690, whose soldiers pillaged the whole city. Titus, also, besieged it, B. C. 70; when the city and the temple were entirely destroyed, and 110,000 persons are said to have perished, and 97,000 to have been made prisoners, and afterwards either sold for slaves, or wantonly exposed for the sport of their insolent victors, to the fury of wild beasts. The emperor Adrian began to rebuild Jerusalem, A. D. 132, and the city was afterwards re-peopled and embellished by Constantine. Under the empire of Heraclitus, Jerusalem was taken by Chosroes II. king of Persia, in 614; and in the seventh and eighth centuries, this city, and all the Holy Land, were almost subject to the Saracens, down to the time of Charlemagne. In the first crusade, headed by Godfrey of Bouillon, in 1099, it was invested by the crusaders on the 7th of June, and a few days after was stormed. The conflict raged throughout one day, and the besieged having defended themselves with triumphant bravery, at the approach of night the commanders of the crusaders ordered a retreat. The night was spent in watching and alarm, by Christians and Saracens; but on the dawn of the morning, the means of hostility and defence were renewed. The battering-rams were put in motion, and the besieged repaired their several breaches, got ready their fire, their boiling oil, and all the dreadful stores of war. About noon, the Christian cause seemed to totter; but Godfrey and Eustace rallied their troops, and about nine o'clock, a soldier leaped on the fortifications; his brother followed, and Godfrey was the third Christian who stood as a conqueror on the ramparts of Jerusalem. On the 15th of July, the city was taken, and was in possession of the champions of the cross. The Musselmens fought for a while, then fled to their tem-

HISTORY.

ples and submitted their necks to slaughter. Such was the carnage in the mosque of Omar, that the mutilated carcasses were hurried down by the torrents of blood into the court; dis severed hands and arms floated in the current, that carried them into contact with bodies to which they had not belonged. Ten thousand people were murdered in this sanctuary, and the victors rode in the blood of the Saracens up to the knees of their horses. In the second massacre, the subjugated people were dragged forth, and slain as victims. Women with children at the breast, girls and boys, were all slaughtered; the synagogues were set on fire, and the Jews perished in the flames. (See *Crusades and Godfrey of Bouillon*.) In 1099, the Latin kingdom of Jerusalem was founded, and Godfrey was elected first duke. Under the reign of Guy of Lusignan, Saladin, king of Syria and Egypt, after having obtained several victories over the Christians, at length took Jerusalem, October 2, 1187, and all the Holy Land; Tyre, Tripoly, Antioch, and some forts excepted. In 1238, Alfr, sultan of Egypt, took several cities from the Christians; so that they had only St. John d'Acre, or Ptolemais, which the sultan Melec-Arafe, Alfr's successor, besieged in 1291, and after forty days close siege, carried it by storm, May 29, and massacred all the besieged, except those who escaped in boats. After successively changing its masters, it was annexed, in 1517, to the Turkish empire, of which it has since formed a part.

Succession of the Latin Kingdom.

Godfrey of Bouillon	A. D. 1099
Baldwin I.	• 1100
Baldwin II.	• 1118
Fulk	• 1131
Baldwin III.	• 1144

JESUITS, a famous religious order of the Romish church, founded in 1540, by Ignatius Loyola, an illustrious Spaniard. They made an important settlement in Paraguay, where upwards of 300,000 families were subject to them, and lived in obedience to their religion; but, in 1767, they were sent out of America by royal au-

thority. In 1759, they were banished from Portugal, on the plea that some of their order were concerned in a conspiracy. The Jesuits in France having engaged largely in trade, a dispute arose respecting the debts of one of their merchants, and on the affair being disputed at Paris, their institute was found to contain offensive maxims. The order was consequently abolished, by royal edict, in 1762, and their effects were sold. On the 21st of July, in the following year, pope Ganganelli suppressed the Jesuits. They were, however, lately re-established in Austria and the Papal territories.

JESUS CHRIST was born Monday, December 25, A. M. 4004, year of Rome 752; his baptism by John, and his first ministry, 30; celebrated the last passover, and instituted the sacrament in its room, on Thursday, April 2; was crucified, April 3; arose, April 5; and ascended, Thursday, May 14, following, in the thirty-third year of his age.

JEWs, the seventy years captivity of, began 606 years before Christ; those near Cyrene, headed by one Andrea, murdered near 100,000 Greeks and Romans; they ate their entrails, and covered themselves with the skins of those they assassinated, 115 after Christ; above 580,000 were destroyed by the Romans, in 135; they first arrived in England, 1079; thinking to invoke the divine clemency at the solemnization of the passover, they sacrificed a youth of twelve years of age, the son of a rich tradesman at Paris, by first whipping his flesh from his bones, and then crucifying him; for which cruelty the criminals were executed, and the rest banished France, 1189; from this circumstance the Jews have ever since been held in detestation; several were massacred Sep. 2, 1189; seven were condemned to pay the king 20,000 marks, or suffer perpetual imprisonment, for circumcising a Christian child at Norwich, and attempting to crucify him, 1235; 200 and upwards were apprehended for crucifying a child at Lincoln, eighteen of whom were

hanged, and the rest heavily fined, 1266; 700 were slain in London, because a Jew would have forced a Christian to pay him more than two shillings per week for the loan of twenty, 1262; every Jew, who lent money on usury, was commanded to wear a plate upon his breast, signifying that he was an usurer, or to quit the realm, 1274; 207 were hanged and quartered for clipping, 1277; the same year the Jews crucified a child at Northampton, for which fifty were drawn on horses' tails, and hanged; all the synagogues were ordered to be destroyed, 1282; all the Jews in England were apprehended in one day, their goods and chattels confiscated to the king, and they, to the number of 15,000, banished the realm, having only sustenance money allowed, 1287; they remained banished 364 years, till Oliver Cromwell restored them; a general massacre of them at Verdun by the peasants, who, from a pretended prophecy, conceived the Holy Land was to be recovered from the infidels by them; 500 of these Jews took shelter in a castle, and defended themselves to the last extremity, when, for want of weapons, they threw their children at the enemy; and then killed each other, 1317; they were driven out of France, 1394; out of Spain, to the number of 150,000, 1492; they retired to Africa, Portugal, and France. It was against them that the Inquisition was there first established.—There was not a Jew in the island of Great Britain from 1610 to 1624.—An act was passed to naturalize them, 1753; it was repealed on the petition of all the cities in England, 1754. Four were executed for murdering Mrs. Hutchins and her servant, Dec. 9, 1771.

JOAN, queen of Naples, was married to Andrew, brother to the king of Hungary; but, as is frequently the case, quarrelled with her husband, and, soon after, consented to his murder, A. D. 1346. Within a year, the queen married the prince of Tarentum, whom the public voice accused of the murder. Lewis of Hungary was determined to revenge the death of

his brother Andrew upon her and her accomplices, and, for that purpose, marched an army towards Naples with a black standard, representing the murder of the king. Joan fled, with her second husband, to her territories in Provence. Deserted by the Neapolitans and the Provengals, she repaired to pope Clement VI. at Avignon, where she pleaded her cause in person before the consistory, who declared her innocent. Lewis, finding he had partly taken his revenge, was satisfied, and returned to his country. The queen having been expelled by her brother-in-law, and restored by the pope, lost her second husband. She married afterwards a prince of Arragon, who died in a short time. At length, at the age of forty-six, she was married again to a younger brother of the house of Brunswick, named Otho. In the dispute between Urban VI. and Clement VII. for the pontifical tiara, Joan sided with Clement, for which she was excommunicated and deposed. Durazzo, her adopted son, took the side of Urban, and the success of this faction was the prelude of misfortunes to Joan. Accompanied by Urban, Charles of Durazzo marched an army to Naples to dethrone his adoptive mother; and the situation in which Joan was placed was such as not to admit of her making head against him. As there was no possibility of escaping, she fell into the hands of the usurper; who immediately declared himself the avenger of Andrew's death. By the advice of Lewis of Hungary, he ordered her to be smothered between two mattresses, which was accordingly done, in the year 1380.

JOAN OF ARC, called the maid of Orleans, was born of low parentage, at Domremi, a village on the borders of Lorraine, in 1402. At this time the affairs of France were in a deplorable state, and the city of Orleans was so closely besieged by the duke of Bedford, that its fall appeared inevitable. In this exigency, Joan pretended to have received a divine commission to expel the invaders. On be-

HISTORY.

ing introduced to the king, Charles VII., she offered to raise the siege of Orleans, and conduct his majesty to Rheims, to be crowned and anointed; at the same time demanding for herself a particular sword, which was in the church of St. Catharine. After some hesitation, her request was complied with; and while the French soldiers were elated by having an inspired leader, the English were as much dismayed. Joan entered Orleans in triumph, and the coronation at Rheims followed; after which, Charles caused a medal to be struck in honour of the heroine, and ennobled her family. The town of Domremi also, where she was born, was exempted from all imposts for ever. After the coronation, Joan declared that her mission was at an end, and that she should now retire to private life; but she was over-persuaded to remain with the army, to cheer the soldiers by her presence. This was fatal advice; for being taken with the garrison of Compiègne, the English, much to their disgrace, caused her to be burnt as a sorceress, in the nineteenth year of her age, 1431. Some doubts, however, have been lately raised against this part of the story; and it has been even said, that so far from being put to death, she lived and was afterwards married.

JOHN I. of that name, emperor of the east, surnamed Tymiscus, succeeded Nicephorus in 969. In the following year he drove the Saracens out of Antioch, defeated the Turks, Russians, and Bulgarians, and took their king and his family. He died in 975.

JOHN II. Comnenus succeeded Alexis Comnenus in 1118. He gained several splendid victories over the Scythians, Huns, Turks, and Saracens. He died in 1143.

JOHN of Brienne, king of Jerusalem, and afterwards emperor of Constantinople, was son of Erard II. of that name. He joined the French crusade for the Holy Land, who took Constantinople, in 1204; and gained so much reputation by his valour, that the barons of Jerusalem, after the death of Amauri their king, sent to France to offer

him this kingdom. He accepted this offer, and arrived at Palestine in 1210; was crowned in the month of October, and relieved the city of Acre besieged by Conrad, sultan of Damascus. He besieged Damietta, in Egypt, which he took, after he had been before it a year and a half, but could not keep it above eight months. In 1229, the French barons of the east chose him for governor of the empire of Constantinople, during the minority of Baldwin II. He took the title of emperor, and arrived at Constantinople in 1231, where he was crowned by the patriarch Simon. He defeated John Ducos, called Vataze, several times, in 1233 and 1235. He died in March, in 1237.

JOHN I. king of Portugal, was elected in 1383. John I. king of Castile took up arms against him, and the Portuguese won the famous battle of Aljubarrota, August 14, 1386, against the Castilians; after which, he married Philippa, the daughter of king John, surnamed Le Grand, duke of Lancaster, by Blanche his first wife, sister to Henry IV. king of England, by whom he had Edward, his successor, &c. He died August 14, 1433.—JOHN II. called Le Grand, succeeded his father Alphonso V. in 1481. In the beginning of his reign, the nobility revolted against him; but he cut off their leaders, particularly Ferdinando duke of Braganza, whom he beheaded. He was at the taking of Azzile and Tangier, in 1471, and signalized himself at the battle of Toro against the Castilians, in 1476. These glorious actions, besides many others, procured him the name of the Great, as his exactness in the administration of justice procured him that of Severe. He died Oct. 25, 1495.

JOHN, king of England, ascended the throne in 1199. The first act of his reign was to secure the provinces on the continent, which had revolted to young Arthur, his nephew, whom he murdered in prison with his own hands. He resisted the pope's election of Stephen Langton to the see of Canterbury, for which the pope sought to be revenged on him, by giving

away his kingdom to the monarch of France. This circumstance naturally created a war, and John advanced to Dover with 60,000 men, to meet the French king, who was preparing an army to take possession of his crown. In this posture of affairs, the pope, whose high authority in temporal as well as spiritual concerns, was considered to be then almost omnipotent, intimated to John, by his legate, that there was but one way to secure himself from the threatened danger: which was, to put himself entirely under the pope's protection, and to perform whatever stipulations the pope should impose. Accordingly, John took the most extraordinary oath in all the records of history, before all the people, upon his knees, and with his hands held up between those of the legate. By this most scandalous concession, John once more averted the threatened blow: but he had now incurred the detestation of all mankind. The barons of England formed a confederacy against him, and compelled him to sign, on the 15th of June, 1215, that famous bulwark of English liberty, *MAGNA CHARTA*. John, however, refused to be governed by this charter. This produced a second civil war, in which the barons had recourse to the king of France for assistance. John directed his route towards Lincolnshire, with an army, but being obliged to keep too close to the sea-shore, and not being apprised of the influx of the tide at a particular place, he lost all his carriages, treasure, and baggage. Grief for the loss he had sustained, threw him into a fever, of which he died, at Newark, in the fifty-first year of his age, and the eighteenth of his detested reign, A. D. 1216.

JOHN, king of France, succeeded his father, Philip de Valois, in 1350. In 1355, he defeated the English at Normandy, and in the following year the prince of Wales, with 12,000 men, pillaged Querci, Auvergne, &c. In 1356, John was taken prisoner by Edward the Black Prince, at the battle of Poitiers, and after being detained

four years in England, he was set at liberty, and returned to France. He afterwards revisited England, and died in the Savoy, London, in 1364.—**JOHN** of France, son of the former, was born in 1340. He signalized himself at Poitiers, and took Limoges, Poitiers, and Rochelle from the English. He died at Paris, in 1416.

JOHN, I. duke of Bourbon and Auvergne. He declared for the house of Orleans against that of Burgoyne, and defeated part of their army in 1414. He was sent to Guienne against the English, and was at the siege of Compeigne and Arras. He commanded the vanguard of the French army at the battle of Agincourt, in 1415; and, being taken, was sent to England, where he died, after nineteen years imprisonment.

JOHN II. duke of Alençon, &c. distinguished himself at the battle of Verneuill in 1424, where he was taken prisoner by the English, but released in 1427. He afterwards served Charles VII. until 1440; when, being accused of treasonable practices, Charles imprisoned him, and he was condemned to lose his head, in 1456. Charles pardoned him, and he was set at liberty by Louis XI. in 1461. He was again seized and condemned in 1474, but the king saved his life. He died in 1476.

JOHN D'ORLEANS, grand-chamberlain of France, surnamed the Victorious, was natural son of Lewis of France, duke of Orleans, second son to king Charles V. He was born in 1403. He began his exploits by assisting Gergeau and Montargis in 1427, and by defeating the earls of Warwick and Suffolk, whom he pursued as far as Paris. He was dangerously wounded in the battle of Rouvray, called the Herrings, February 12, 1428. Afterwards, shutting himself up in Orleans, he defended it courageously against the English; and he was about to burn it, when the Maid of Orleans forced the enemy to raise the siege. This victory was seconded by several others; he was in the battle of Patay, in Beause, in 1429; he superintended

HISTORY.

the enterprize against Chartres, in 1431; and 1435, he took St. Denys and Creil from the English. In 1438, he took Dreux and Montargis from the English. In 1449 and 1450, he subdued all the principal places of Normandy. In the following year, he signalized himself at Guienne, took Blaie, Fronsac, Bourdeaux, Bayonne, &c. King Charles VII. gave him the title of Restorer of his Country, presented him with the earldom of Longueville, and honoured him with the office of grand-chamberlain of France. Lewis XI. made him chief over thirty-six grandes, in 1468. Two years after, he assisted at the assembly of Tours. He died at the age of sixty-seven years, in 1470.

JOHN, the first earl of Nevers, and afterwards duke of Burgoigne, was born in 1731. He commanded the army sent by Charles VI. to Sigismund king of Hungary, against Bajazet II. emperor of the Turks. In this army were 20,000 of the nobility, all of whom were defeated or made prisoners in the battle of Nicopolis, in 1396. Bajazet ordered 600 of them to be cut to pieces, before the earl of Nevers, and saved him and fifteen more, who were afterwards ransomed. On John's accession to his father's estate he renewed the quarrels between the houses of Orleans and Burgoigne, and caused Louis of Orleans to be assassinated at Paris, in 1407. This rekindled a civil war. John retired to Flanders, but afterwards returned to Paris, and resumed the government. He was assassinated in 1429.

JOHN of Austria, was the natural son of Charles V. He was born at Ratisbon, in 1547. In 1570, Charles sent him to Granada, against the Moors, where he concluded the war happily; and the year after, they named him admiral of the fleet leagued against the Turks. He gained the famous battle of Lepanto, against the infidels, in October 1571, when the Turks lost 25,000 men, and most of their commanders. In 1573, John of Austria took Tunis in Africa, which the Turks re-took the following year. In 1575, he was governor of the Spanish Netherlands, after the

death of Louis de Requesens, grand commander of Castile. Before his arrival, the Spanish soldiers plundered the city of Antwerp. The Catholic provinces united themselves with those of Holland and Zealand, by a treaty made at Ghent, and commonly called the Pacification of Ghent. He next made himself master of Namur, Charlemont, and Marienburg. The States armed against him, and drove him to Luxembourg. John gained a signal victory over the allies at Gemblours, in January, 1578. After this he took several places, and died of the plague, or poison, October 1, of the same year, in his camp near Namur.

JOHN II. king of Arragon and Navarre, succeeded to the crown in 1420. On the death of his queen, Blanche, a dispute took place with his son Charles, on which two factions arose between the houses of Beaumont and Grammont. The first sided with the prince, who was afterwards defeated; but John being reconciled to him, gave him Catalonia. Charles was, however, defeated a second time, and being taken prisoner, the Catalonians compelled John to release him. Charles died on the following day. The Castilians afterwards revolted against John. He died in 1479.

JOHN, king of Bohemia, was elected in 1309. He reduced Silesia, and signalized himself in Lombardy, in 1330. He assisted Philip de Valois, and was at the battle of Cressy in 1346. John, being blind, fastened his horse by the bridle to one of his best horsemen, rushed into the midst of the enemy, and was killed.

JOHN II. king of Castile, was proclaimed in 1406. At an early age, he compelled the kings of Navarre and Arragon to sue for peace. He afterwards attacked the Moors of Granada, and, in 1431, killed 1200 of his troops. He died in 1454.

JOHN D'ANJOU, duke of Calabria and Lorraine, &c. succeeded to the duchy in 1432. He defeated Ferdinand at the battle of Sarno, in 1460; but, in 1463, he was defeated near Troyes, and he after-

wards retired to Marseilles. He died in 1470.

JOHN OF GAUNT, or GHENT, so called from his being born in that city, at a time when the kings of England held territory in France and Flanders. He was third son of Edward III. and subsequently created duke of Lancaster, enjoying all the feudal appurtenances of that valuable duchy. His name is celebrated in English history, because he was the father of Henry of Lancaster, who became Henry IV., dethroning his cousin, Richard II. son of the Black Prince, eldest son of Edward III.; and, at the same time, superseding the claims of the duke of York, second son of Edward III. Hence the subsequent wars of the houses of York and Lancaster, and part of the historical celebrity of the subject of this article. John of Gaunt was moreover a prince of distinguished personal character; he favoured Wickliffe and other reformers, allied himself to Chaucer, by marriage, and originated many local customs preserved to this day. He died at Ely-house, in 1399.

JORA, a fortress of Hindostan, province of Allahabad. This place was taken by the troops of the emperor Akbar in 1564; but before the surrender, the garrison made a general massacre of their wives and children, set fire to the houses, and then sallied out sword-in-hand upon their foes.

JOSEPHUS FLAVIUS, a celebrated Jew, born in Jerusalem, who signalized his military abilities in supporting a siege of forty-seven days against Vespasian and Titus, in a small town of Judea. When the city surrendered, there were not found less than 40,000 Jews slain, and the number of captives amounted to 1,200. Josephus saved his life by flying into a cave, where forty of his countrymen had also taken refuge. He dissuaded them from committing suicide, and when they had all drawn lots to kill one another, Josephus fortunately remained the last, and surrendered himself to Vespasian. Josephus was present at the siege of Jerusalem by Titus,

and received all the sacred books which it contained from the conqueror's hands. He came to Rome with Titus, where he was honoured with the name and privileges of a Roman citizen. Here he made himself esteemed by the emperors Vespasian and Titus, and dedicated his time to study. Josephus died A. D. 98, in the fifty-sixth year of his age.

JOUAN, a bay in the south-east of France. It was here that Napoleon landed, on his return from Elba, on the 1st of March, 1815.

JOVIAN, (Flavius Claudius,) a native of Pannonia, elected emperor of Rome by the soldiers, after the death of Julian. He at first refused to be invested with the imperial purple, because his subjects followed the religious principles of the late emperor; but they removed his groundless apprehensions; and, when they assured him that they were warm for Christianity, he accepted the crown. He made a disadvantageous treaty with the Persians, against whom Julian was marching with a victorious army. Jovian died seven months and twenty days after his accession.

JUBA, a king of Numidia and Mauritania, who succeeded his father Hiempsal, and favoured the cause of Pompey against Julius Cæsar. He defeated Curius, whom Cæsar had sent to Africa; and, after the battle of Pharsalia, he joined his forces to those of Scipio. He was conquered in a battle at Thapsus, and totally abandoned by his subjects. He killed himself with Petreius, who had shared his good fortune and his adversity. His kingdom became a Roman province, of which Sallust was the first governor. The second of that name was the son of Juba the first. He was led among the captives to Rome, to adorn the triumph of Cæsar. He gained the hearts of the Romans by the courteousness of his manners, and Augustus rewarded his fidelity by giving him in marriage Cleopatra, the daughter of Antony, and conferring upon him the title of king, and making him master of all the territories which his father once possessed.

HISTORY.

His popularity was so great, that the Athenians raised him a statue, and the Ethiopians worshipped him as a deity.

JUDÆA, a famous country of Assyria, bounded by Arabia, Egypt, Phœnicia, the Mediterranean sea, and part of Syria. The inhabitants were chiefly governed after their Babylonish captivity by the high-priests, who raised themselves to the rank of princes, B. C. 533, and continued in the enjoyment of regal power till the age of Augustus.

JUGDISPORE, a town of Hindostan, province of Bahar. In the year 1745, a battle was fought at this place, between the troops of the nabob Alyverdy Khan, and his rebellious general Mustapha Khan, in which the latter was killed by a musket-ball.

JULIAN, a son of Julius Constantius, the brother of Constantine the Great, born at Constantinople. The massacre which attended the elevation of the sons of Constantine the Great to the throne, nearly proved fatal to Julian and to his brother Gallus. The two brothers were privately educated together, and taught the doctrines of the Christian religion. Gallus received the instructions of his teachers, with deference and submission; but Julian showed his dislike for Christianity by secretly cherishing a desire to become one of the votaries of Paganism. He was appointed over Gaul, with the title of Cæsar, by Constans, and there he showed himself worthy of the imperial dignity by his prudence, valour, and the numerous victories which he obtained over the enemies of Rome, in Gaul and Germany. His mildness, as well as his condescension, gained him the hearts of his soldiers; and when Constans, to whom Julian was become suspected, ordered him to send him part of his forces to go into the east, the army immediately mutinied, and promised immortal fidelity to their leader, by refusing to obey the order of Constans. They even compelled Julian, by threats and entreaties, to accept of the title of independent emper-

ror and of Augustus; and the death of Constans, which soon after happened, left him sole master of the Roman empire, A. D. 361. Julian then disclosed his religious sentiments, and publicly disavowed the doctrines of Christianity. This change of religious opinion was attributed to the austerity with which he was taught the precepts of Christianity, or, according to others, to the literary conversation and persuasive eloquence of some of the Athenian philosophers. From this circumstance, therefore, Julian has been called apostate. After he had made his public entry at Constantinople, he determined to continue the Persian war, and check those barbarians, who had for sixty years derided the indolence of the Roman emperors. When he had crossed the Tigris, he burned his fleet, and advanced with boldness into the enemy's country. His march was that of a conqueror; but the country of Assyria had been left desolate by the Persians, and Julian, without corn or provisions, was obliged to retire. As he advanced through the country, he defeated the officers of Sapor, the king of Persia; but an engagement proved fatal to him, and he received a deadly wound, as he animated his soldiers to battle. He expired the following night, the 27th of June, A. D. 363, in the thirty-second year of his age.

JUTERBOCK, a town of the Prussian province of Brandenburg, of some note in history, as the scene of two battles; one in 1644, in which Torstensson, the Swedish general, defeated the imperialists, under count Gallas; and another, between the French and allies, on the 6th September, 1813. The latter is commonly called, the battle of Dennewitz.

JUXON, (William,) an English prelate, was born at Chichester, in 1582. In 1635, he was advanced to the post of lord-high-treasurer, which no churchman had held since the reign of Henry VII. This office he resigned in 1641; when it was admitted, by all parties, that he had conducted himself

without reproach. After attending his royal master at the treaty in the Isle of Wight, and on the scaffold, he went into retirement; but, at the Restoration, he was made archbishop of Canterbury, and had the satisfaction of placing the crown on the head of Charles the Second. He died June 4, 1663.

JYHTPORE, or **JEYTPORE**, a town and fortress of Hindostan, province of Allahabad. During

the year 1732, the Afghan nabob, Mohammed Khan. Bonguish, was besieged in this place by an army of Mabrattas; and was reduced to such distress, that his followers eat horses, asses, and even dogs; but he was at length relieved by the magnanimity of his wife, who sent her veil round to the other Afghan chiefs; upon which they assembled, and marched to his assistance.

K:

KAHLENBERG, a mountain of Austria, extending along the Danube, to the west of Vienna. It was by this mountain that Sobieski marched, in 1683, to the relief of Vienna, and raised the memorable siege by the Turkish army, who had been enabled to penetrate thus far by the aid of the Hungarian insurgents.

KAJA, a small village near Lutzen, in Prussian Saxony, remarkable for being the scene of reiterated attacks, and much bloodshed, in the battle of 2d May, 1813, between the French under Bonaparte, and the allied Russian and Prussian army, commanded by Wittgenstein.

KALLUNDBORG, or **CALLUNDBURG**, a seaport of Denmark, on the west of Zealand. It had a castle, in which Christian II. died a prisoner, and Albert king of Sweden was confined; but, in 1658, the Swedes blew it up, and it is now fallen to decay.

KARMETA, an Arabian impostor, appeared in the caliphate of Mothaded, A.D. 902. His doctrine was but little different from Mohammed's. His followers increased prodigiously in a short period. Under the mask of devotion, they practised the most abominable libertinism. They afterwards formed numerous armies; laid waste many of the finest provinces in Asia, and became so formidable, that Al Motaded had need of all his forces, to drive them from the centre of his dominions. After destroying towns and villages, desolating the country with fire and sword, carrying into captivity many of the caliph's subjects, and

possessing themselves of immense booty, they were defeated, their chiefs taken prisoners, and compelled to meet death under the most execrating torture.

KATZBACH, a river of Silesia, which rises at Ketschdorf, and joins the Oder, near Leubus. On the 26th of August, 1813, a battle was fought, between this river and the town of Janetz, between the Prussians, under Blucher, and the French, under Macdonald.

KEHL, a small town in the southwest of Germany, on the right bank of the Rhine. The French took it in 1703, and afterwards in 1733. In 1793, they bombarded it; and, in July, 1796, when preparing to advance into the heart of Germany, under Moreau, the capture of Kehl was the first exploit of the army. In September following, it was taken by the Austrians; but the French advancing by the bridge leading to Strasburg, speedily retook it. It was taken 10th January, 1797, by the Austrians, after a very obstinate defence. In the succeeding April, the French, resuming the offensive, retook this fort, and continued to possess it till 1814, when it was restored to the grand-duke of Baden.

KEITH, (James,) field-marshal in the Prussian service, was born in Scotland, in 1696. In 1715, he joined the pretender, and was wounded at the battle of Sheriffmuir, but made his escape to France. From Paris he went to Madrid, and obtained a commission in the Irish brigades; but, on accompanying the Spanish embassy to Russia, he entered into the service of that state, was promoted.

HISTORY.

to the rank of lieutenant-general, and invested with the order of the Black Eagle. By his skill Oczakow was taken; and, in the war with Sweden, he materially contributed to the victory of Willmanstrand, and the taking of the isles of Aland. He had, afterwards, a share in raising the empress Elizabeth to the throne; but, not being rewarded according to his services, he left Petersburg for Prussia, where the king made him governor of Berlin, and field-marshal. He was killed at the battle of Hochkerchen, October 14, 1758.

KENILWORTH, (castle of,) was founded by Geoffrey de Clinton, chamberlain and treasurer to king Henry I. Most of the buildings, of which the remains are still visible, were built by John of Gaunt, who had acquired the castle by marriage. Through his son, Henry IV., the castle again returned into the hands of the crown, and continued so, until queen Elizabeth conferred it on Robert Dudley, earl of Leicester. This nobleman spent immense sums in adorning and enlarging the building; and, when all was finished, he entertained the queen here for seventeen days, in a style of extraordinary magnificence, the particulars of which are still preserved.

KENTUCKY, one of the United States of America, remained unnoticed by the whites until 1766. In 1769, colonel Boon, in company with some others, agreed to travel and explore it; and, in 1775, he and his family, with five other families, that were joined by forty men from Powell's Valley, arrived on the banks of Kentucky river, and erected a fort, which they named Boonsborough. Kentucky was erected into an independent state by an act of congress, December 6, 1790, and was taken into the union two years after.

KHOEE, a town of Aderbajan, in Persia. On the plain which surrounds it was fought, in 1514, a battle between Shah Ismael and Selim I., in which 30,000 Persians engaged 300,000 Turks.

KILDARE, a county of Ireland, province of Munster. It was the scene of much distress during the

rebellion of 1798, many battles having been fought in it, and a vast number of houses destroyed, both by the rebels, and by the military force sent to subdue them.

KILLIECRANKIE, a noted pass to the highlands of Scotland, in Athol. Near the north end of this pass was fought the famous battle of Killiecrankie, in 1689, in which the forces of king William, under general Mackay, were defeated by the highland adherents of king James, under viscount Dundee, who was killed in the action.

KING'S MOUNTAIN, a mountain in the west part of North Carolina. In the year 1780, a detachment of British troops, under major Ferguson, was attacked by the Americans, under colonels Williams and Cleveland. Major Ferguson was mortally wounded; about 300 British were killed, and the rest, to the amount of 800 men, surrendered prisoners.

KIPJAKS, (the). In 1210, Jenghis Khan bestowed the extensive plains, which spread from the Caspian sea to the frontiers of Russia, on his son, Tushi, who, beside the kingdoms of Astrakan and Kassan, enclosed Little Tartary within his dominions, and some provinces of Europe, and thus formed an immense empire. Some historians reckon seventeen, others twenty-one of these princes, whose achievements prove that they were in general celebrated in war. The Kipjak and Usbek Khans, ever at variance with surrounding nations, were gradually driven back, by the Russians, from the ancient domain near the Caspian sea, and shut up in Crim Tartary. From that time to the year 1708, history has recorded a great number of sultans who reigned in these parts, and who were sometimes sovereign princes, sometimes vassals to the Turks, to the Genese, and, lastly, to the Russians.

KIRTHIPORE, a town of Hindostan, province of Nepaul. This place was taken, after a long resistance, in 1768, by the rajah of Nepaul, who, most inhumanly, ordered the noses of all the inhabitants to be cut off.

KLEBER (J. B.) a famous general, was born at Strasburgh in 1750. He was originally an architect; but left that business for the Austrian service, in which he rose to the rank of lieutenant. On leaving the army, he became superintendent of the public works in Upper Alsace; but, when the French Revolution broke out, he entered into it with ardour, and was engaged in several battles. He accompanied Bonaparte to Egypt, and was left by him to command there on his departure. After which, Kleber took Cairo, and formed an alliance with Murat Bey; but was assassinated by an Arab, in 1800.

KNOX, (John,) was born in 1505, at Gifford, in the county of East Lothian. He became tutor to some young gentlemen, whom he carefully brought up in protestant principles, for which his life was sought by cardinal Beton, and his successor, archbishop Hamilton. Notwithstanding this, Knox went on propagating the new doctrines; and, in 1547, appeared publicly as a preacher; but St. Andrew's being taken the same year by the French, he was carried off with the garrison. In 1549, he recovered his liberty, and landed in England, where he was appointed chaplain to Edward VI. On the accession of queen Mary, he went to Geneva, and next to Frankfort, where he took part with the English exiles, who opposed the use of the liturgy; but the other side prevailing, Knox returned to Geneva, and soon after went to Scotland. While engaged in the ministry, he received an invitation to return to Geneva, with which he complied; and, in his absence, the bishops passed sentence of death upon him for heresy. In 1558, he printed "The first Blast of the Trumpet against the monstrous Regiment of Women," intended as an attack upon Mary, queen of England, and his own sovereign; but it had afterwards the effect of provoking queen Elizabeth and her ministers against the author. The year following he returned to his native country, where his presence ant-

imated the populace to acts of this storm, and he insulted the dreadful outrage. Knox was undismayed at danger, and by his exertions rendered the reformation triumphant. In 1567, he preached the sermon at the coronation of her son, and another at the opening of the parliament; but these labours broke his constitution, and he died Nov. 24, 1572.

KORAN, a book containing the precepts of the Mohammedan religion; a paper copy of which, in a volume of silk and gems, was said to have been brought down to the lowest heaven, by the angel Gabriel. Instead of a perpetual and perfect measure of the divine will, the fragments of the Koran were produced at different times, and suited to the emergencies of the policy or passions of Mohammed. Two years after his death, the sacred volume was collected and published, by his friend and successor, Abu Becr. The work was revised by the caliph Othman, in the thirtieth year of the Hegira. At the end of 200 years the Sonna, or oral law, was fixed and consecrated by the labours of Al Bochari, who discriminated the genuine traditions from those of a more doubtful or spurious character.

KOREA. In 112, B. C., Ki-tze is said to have been the first king of this country; but, in 201 A. D. it was conquered by the Japanese, and it is uncertain when it recovered its independency. In 1234, it became tributary to Jenghis Khan; and, in 1664, was conquered by Shunghi, the first prince of the second Tartar dynasty of China.

KOSCIUSKO, (Thaddeus,) a Polish general, was born of a respectable family, and educated at the military school of Warsaw; after which he went to France, and next to America, where he served as aide-de-camp to Washington. On his return home, he was made major-general, and distinguished himself greatly in the war of 1792, but without effect. Two years afterwards, the Poles again took up arms, and were headed by Kosciusko; but all his exertions were fruitless, and he

HISTORY.

was made prisoner by the Russians, who treated him with great respect; and the emperor, Paul, gave him an estate. Kosciusko now visited America the second time; and, in 1798, returned to Europe, and settled in France, where Bonaparte endeavoured, in vain, to tempt him into his service. He died at Soleure, in Switzerland, October 16, 1817.

KOULI-KHAN (See *Nadir Shah*.)

KROTZK, a small town of European Turkey, in Servia. In the year 1739, a battle was fought here, between the imperialists, commanded by Von Wallis, and the Turks, in which the former lost 5,700 men in killed, and 4,500 in wounded. At the same time, a battle was fought between the flotillas of the two contending powers on the Danube, within a small distance from the town.

L.

LABIENUS, an officer of Cæsar in the wars of Gaul. He deserted to Pompey, and was killed at the battle of Munda.—A Roman who followed the interest of Brutus and Cassius, and became general of the Parthians against Rome. He was conquered by the officers of Augustus.

LACEDÆMON, a noble city of Peloponnesus, the capital of Laconia, called also Sparta, and now known by the name of Misitra. Lelex is supposed to have been the first king. His descendants, thirteen in number, reigned successively after him, till the reign of the sons of Orestes, about eighty years after the Trojan war. Procles and Eurysthenes enjoyed the crown together, and after them it was decreed that the two families should always sit on the throne together. These two brothers began to reign B. C. 1103. The successors of Procles on the throne began to reign in the following order: Sous 1060 B. C. after his father had reigned 42 years: Eurypon, 1028: Prytanis, 1021: Eunomus, 986: Polydectes, 967: Lycurgus, 898: Charilaus, 873: Nicander, 869: Theopompus, 770: Zeuxidamus, 723: Anaxidamus, 690: Archidamus, 651: Agasicles, 605: Ariston, 564: Demaratus, 526: Leotychides, 491: Archidamus, 469: Agis, 427: Agesilaus, 397: Archidamus, 361: Agis II. 338: Eudamidas, 330: Archidamus, 295: Eudamidas II. 266: Agis, 244: Archidamus, 230: Euclidus, 225: Lycurgus, 219.—The successors of Eurysthenes were Agis, 1059: Echestratus, 1038: Labotas, 1023: Doryssus, 986: Agesilaus, 957: Ar-

chelaus, 913: Teleclus, 853: Alcamenes, 813: Polydorus, 776: Eurycrates, 724: Anaxander, 637: Eurycrates II. 644: Leon, 607: Anaxandrides, 563: Cleomenes, 530: Leonidas, 491: Plistarchus, under guardianship of Pausanias, 480: Plistoanax, 466: Pausanias, 408: Agesipolis, 397: Cleombrotus, 380: Agesipolis II. 371: Cleomenes II. 370: Aretus or Areus, 309: Acrotatus, 265: Arens II. 264: Leonidas, 257: Cleombrotus, 243: Leonidas restored, 241: Cleomenes, 235: Agesipolis, 219. Under the two last kings, Lycurgus and Agesipolis, the monarchical power was abolished, though Machanidas the tyrant made himself absolute, B. C. 210, and Nabis, 206, for fourteen years. In the year 191 B. C. Lacedæmon joined the Achæan league, and about three years after, the walls were demolished by order of Philopœmen. The territories of Laconia shared the fate of the Achæan confederacy, and the whole was conquered by Mummius, 147 B. C. and converted into a Roman province. The inhabitants of Lacedæmon have rendered themselves illustrious for their courage and intrepidity, for their love of honour and liberty, and for their aversion to sloth and luxury. From their valour in the field, and their moderation and temperance at home, they were courted and revered by all the neighbouring princes, and their assistance was severally implored to protect the Sicilians, Carthaginians, Thracians, Egyptians, Cyrenæans, &c. They were forbidden by the laws of their country to visit foreign states, lest their morals

should be corrupted by an intercourse with effeminate nations. The austere manner in which their children were educated, rendered them undaunted in the field of battle; and, from this circumstance, Leonidas with a small band was enabled to resist the myriads of the army of Xerxes at Thermopylæ. The women were as courageous as the men, and many a mother has celebrated with festivals the death of her son who had fallen in battle; or has coolly put him to death, if, by a shameful flight or loss of his arms, he brought disgrace upon his country. In the affairs of Greece, the interest of the Lacedæmonians was often powerful, and obtained the superiority for 500 years. The authority of their monarchs was checked by the watchful eye of the Ephori, who had the power of imprisoning the kings themselves if guilty of misdemeanors. The Lacedæmonians are remarkable for the honour and reverence which they paid to old age. The names of Lacedæmon and Sparta are promiscuously applied to the capital of Laconia, and often confounded together. The place where the city stood is now called Paleo Chori, (the old town), and the new one erected on its ruins at some distance on the west is called Mistra.

LÆLIANUS, a general, proclaimed emperor in Gaul by his soldiers, A. D. 268, after the death of Gallienus. His triumph was short; he was conquered and put to death, after a few months' reign, by another general called Posthumus, who aspired to the imperial purple as well as himself.

LALLY, (Thomas Arthur, count), a native of Ireland, who, from his attachment to the house of Stuart, entered into the French service, and distinguished himself so gallantly at the battle of Fontenoy, as to be appointed brigadier-general. In 1756, he was made governor of Pondicherry, where he suffered some severe defeats, and was compelled to surrender that capital of the French settlements in India; for which, public clamour ran so high against him, that he was beheaded, in 1766.

LAMBERT (John), major-general in the parliament army in the reign of Charles I. He distinguished himself at the battles of Naseby and Fife, and assisted Cromwell in his advancement to the Protectorate, but opposed his taking the title of king. For this, Cromwell deprived him of his commission; but from prudential motives granted him a pension of 2000*l.* a-year. On the death of the Protector he joined Fleetwood, Desborough, and others, in restoring the members of the long parliament, who had been dismissed, for which he was appointed one of the council of state, and colonel of a regiment of horse. The parliament, however, growing jealous of his influence in the army, directed him to resign his commission; but this he absolutely refused; and, marching up to London, dislodged the members by force, in October, 1659. He was then appointed major-general of the army, and sent to command the forces in the north; but general Monk having defeated him, and restored the parliament, he was deserted by his army, submitted, and was committed prisoner to the Tower. At the Restoration he was tried and condemned, but received a pardon, and died in exile at Guernsey.

LANARK, county-town of Lanarkshire, in Scotland. The castle of Lanark sustained several sieges in the wars with England: Lanark was the scene of sir William Wallace's first great military exploits, having in this town defeated and put to death, William de Heselrig, the English sheriff of Lanarkshire, who had murdered his wife.

LANCASTER, earl of, at the head of the barons, took up arms, in 1308, against Edward II.; and compelled him to devolve, for one year, the whole authority of the realm on a chosen junto of twelve. On the claim of Spenser, the favourite of the king, to an estate which had been settled on the family of Mowbray, Lancaster and several of the most potent barons flew to arms; they ravaged the lands of both the Spensers, who were absent; and, having extorted from the king an act of

HISTORY.

attainder against his favourite, and indemnity for themselves, they disbanded their army, and separated in security, as they imagined, to their several castles. Edward, however, having assembled an army, dropped the mask, reversed the sentence, and prepared to chastise his enemies. Meanwhile, Lancaster fled to the north with thirty thousand men; but being intercepted at Boroughbridge, after a short action, was made prisoner, and conveyed to Pomfret castle, where he suffered decapitation.

LANDEN, a town of the Netherlands, in South Brabant, noted for an obstinate battle fought near it on the 29th of July, 1693, in which the allies, under William III. of England, were defeated by the French, commanded by marshal Luxembourg.

LANDSBERG, a town of Prussia, in the province of Brandenburg, was besieged by the Russians in 1758; and, in 1768, it suffered severely from fire.

LANGALERIE, (Philip de Gentils, marquis de,) the first baron of Salptonge, was born of a noble family in that province. He distinguished himself in thirty-two campaigns in the French service, and attained the rank of lieutenant-general in 1704. On some disgust he went to Vienna, and was made a general of cavalry; but soon quitted the Imperial service for that of Poland, which he also left, and retired to Frankfort; from whence he removed to Berlin, and next to the Hague, where he entered into a negotiation with the Turkish ambassador; of which the emperor being apprised, he caused him to be arrested at Stade, in 1716, and conducted to Vienna, where he died the year following.

LAON, battle of, between the French and Prussians, in March, 1814. The Silesian army occupied a very strong position at Laon, and was there joined by the Russians, who had evacuated Soissons. On the 9th of March, Bonaparte brought up his whole force to the attack. He was repulsed in front, and his right wing, while hotly engaged at the village of Athies,

was thrown into confusion by a mass of cavalry which Blücher had sent round from his rear. Marmont, who commanded this wing, endeavoured to extricate it; but he was attacked in front, and totally routed by prince William of Prussia. On the following day Bonaparte assaulted Blücher's right wing; but he was again repulsed, and he retreated in the night towards Soissons, having lost forty-eight pieces of cannon, and a great number of men, of whom 5,000 were taken prisoners.

LASWAREE, a town of Hindostan, province of Delhi, where, on the 1st of November, 1803, a desperate battle was fought between the British troops under lord Lake, and the Mahrattas, in which the latter were totally defeated.

LATERANUS PLAUTUS, a Roman consul elect, A. D. 65. A conspiracy with Piso against the emperor Nero proved fatal to him. He was led to execution, where he refused to confess the associates of the conspiracy, and did not even frown at the executioner, who was as guilty as himself; but when a first blow could not sever his head from his body, he looked at the executioner, and shaking his head, he returned it to the hatchet with the greatest composure, and it was cut off.

LATIMER, (Hugh,) was born at Thurcaston, in Leicestershire. Being an admired preacher, his influence was of great importance; and he, consequently, soon became obnoxious to the popish party. The martyrdom of Bilney, at Norwich, served only to animate Latimer, who had the courage to write a letter of remonstrance to the king, on the evil of prohibiting the use of the Bible in English. His majesty took this in good part, and presented the writer to the living of West Kington, in Wiltshire; but this only redoubled the malice of his enemies, who were still more provoked at his elevation, in 1535, to the bishopric of Worcester, for which he was indebted to Anne Bullen and Thomas Cromwell. Of his plain dealing, the following circumstance is a proof. It was then the custom for the

bishops to make presents on new-year's-day to the king, and among the rest Latimer waited at court with his gift, which, instead of a purse of gold, was a New Testament, having the leaf turned down to this passage, "Whoremongers and adulterers God will judge." Henry, however, was not hurt by this bluntness; and when, some time afterwards, Latimer was called before him to account for a sermon which he had preached at court, he justified it so honestly, that the monarch dismissed him with a smile. But, after the fall of Cromwell, his adversaries prevailed, and he was sent to the Tower for speaking against the six bloody articles; and there he remained the rest of this reign. On the accession of Edward, he was released; but though he was now very popular at court, and a frequent preacher, no inducement could prevail with him to resume the episcopal function. He resided with Cranmer at Lambeth; and when Mary ascended the throne, "Father Latimer," as he was generally called, was cited to appear before the privy-council, by whom he was sent to the Tower. On passing through Smithfield, he said, "This place hath long groaned for me;" but he was not sacrificed there; the triumphant party ordering him to be conveyed to Oxford, with his friends Ridley and Cranmer. There, after a mock conference and degradation, Latimer and Ridley were brought to the stake, October 16, 1555. On coming to the spot, Latimer said to his companion, "Be of good cheer, brother: we shall this day kindle such a torch in England as, I trust, shall never be extinguished."

LATINUS, a son of Faunus, by Marica, king of the Aborigines in Italy, who from him were called Latini. He married Amata, by whom he had a son and a daughter. The son died in his infancy, and the daughter, called Lavinia, was secretly promised in marriage by her mother to Turnus, king of the Rutuli, one of her most powerful admirers. The gods opposed this union, and the oracles declared that Lavinia must become

the wife of a foreign prince. The arrival of Æneas in Italy seemed favourable to this prediction, and Latinus, by offering his daughter to the foreign prince, and making him his friend and ally, seemed to have fulfilled the commands of the oracle. Turnus, however, disapproving of the conduct of Latinus, he claimed Lavinia as his lawful wife, and prepared to support his cause by arms. Æneas took up arms in his own defence, and Latium was the seat of the war. After mutual losses, it was agreed that the quarrel should be decided by the two rivals, and Latinus promised his daughter to the conqueror. Æneas obtained the victory, and married Lavinia. Latinus soon after died, and was succeeded by his son-in-law.

LAUDONN, (Gideon Ernest,) an Austrian general, was born at Tootzen, in 1716, of a family that originally came from Scotland. He displayed great talents in the seven years' war, for which he was made a major-general, and invested with the order of Maria Theresa. In 1757, he contributed to the victory of Hochkirchen, and, afterwards he gained that of Kunnersdorf. He next defeated the Prussians at Landshut, and made himself master of Glatz. On the conclusion of peace, he was created a baron of the empire; in 1766, nominated an aulic-councillor; and, in 1776, made field-marshal. He next commanded against the Turks; and, in 1789, took Belgrade. He died July 14, 1790.

LEAKE, (sir John,) was born at Rotherhithe, in 1666. He served with his father, and, at the Revolution, obtained the command of a ship of seventy guns. In 1692, he was at the battle off La Hogue; and, in 1701, was made first-captain of the Britannia, under the earl of Pembroke, lord-high-admiral of England. The year following he was appointed to command a squadron sent against Newfoundland, which service he accomplished; and, on his return, was made an admiral. In 1703, he received the honour of knighthood, and had his share in the capture of Gibraltar; the garrison

HISTORY.

of which he afterwards relieved; when on the point of surrendering. He was next engaged in the reduction of Barcelona, which place he also relieved when reduced to great necessity. He next took Carthage and Majorca. In 1707, he was appointed commander-in-chief of the fleet, in which capacity he performed great services in the Mediterranean, and obtained many flattering marks of distinction from the emperor, the king of Spain, and his own sovereign. He died August 1, 1720.

LEATONG. This empire began about 811, and the inhabitants of this country, called Kitans, being increased by many colonies from Korea in 1033, became very considerable, and changed their name to Lyau. In 1101 this empire was destroyed by the Chinese, in conjunction with the Niuche, or Eastern Tartars, who immediately established themselves in this country, which is in the northern parts of China.

LEIPSIK, battle of, between the allies and the French, under Bonaparte, in October, 1813. Blücher and Bernadotte arrived, by a circuitous march, near the environs of Leipsic, on the north, while Schwartzberg drew near the city from the south-east. The French were in the middle, and contested, on the 16th, with great firmness, the distant outposts against each of the armies. The 17th was passed by both sides in approximating their forces, and preparing for a decisive conflict. Blücher and Bernadotte marching round to the east, put themselves in communication with Schwartzberg; and the dreadful engagements of the 18th took place in a long line of positions extending from north to south, and distant from Leipsic about seven miles to the east. The opposing masses were the greatest of which we read in authenticated history: the allies were 240,000 strong, and the French were 160,000. The battle began early at each end of the positions; it soon became close and sanguinary, particularly at the village of Probstheide, on the right of the French, whither Bo-

naparte repaired in person. This village was repeatedly taken and retaken; the fire of the artillery was destructive on both sides, and all was undecided; when at noon a messenger, from the extreme left of the French position, brought the unwelcome notice that a part of the Saxon artillery and cavalry had gone over to the allies. At three o'clock came the still more alarming information of the desertion of the Saxon infantry. The intelligence was kept secret; a detachment of the French guards replaced the Saxons; but the superiority now acquired by the allies was decisive, and the battle closed with the loss of 40,000 French, in killed, wounded, and captured, with sixty-five pieces of cannon.

LEMNOS, one of the Greek islands, now called Stalimene. It was infamous for the massacre committed by the Lemnian women on their husbands, and all the male inhabitants of the island.

LENTULUS, a celebrated family at Rome, which produced many great men in the commonwealth. The most illustrious were L. Corn. Lentulus, a consul, A. U. C. 427.—Corn. Lentulus, surnamed Sura. He joined in Cataline's conspiracy, and assisted in corrupting the Allobroges. He was convicted in full senate by Cicero, and put in prison, and afterwards executed.

LEO X. (pope,) was born at Florence, in 1475, being the second son of Lorenzo de Medici, and was baptized by the name of John. At the age of thirteen he was made a cardinal. He succeeded Julius II. in 1513, and assumed the name of Leo. He was a patron of literature, and encouraged the study of the Greek language. After opposing the king of France, he made peace with him; and, in 1515, concluded a concordat on the abolition of the Pragmatic Sanction. But the most remarkable circumstance in this pontificate was the rise of the reformation under Luther, occasioned by the indulgences which Leo issued, to enable him to complete the church of St. Peter. He died in 1521.

LEO VI. emperor of the east,

called "the Philosopher," succeeded his father Basil, the Macedonian, in 886. He expelled the patriarch Photius, and defeated the Hungarians and Bulgarians. He died in 911.

LEOBEN, a town of the Austrian states, in Upper Styria. It was here that the convention was concluded between the French and Austrians, on the 20th of April, 1797, which terminated in the peace of Campo Formio.

LEONATUS, one of Alexander's generals. He distinguished himself in Alexander's conquest of Asia, and once saved the king's life in a dangerous battle. He was empowered by Perdiccas to assist Eumenes in making himself master of the province of Cappadocia, which had been allotted to him. Like the rest of the generals of Alexander, he was ambitious of power and dominion. He aspired to the sovereignty of Macedonia, and secretly communicated to Eumenes the different plans he meant to pursue to execute his designs. He passed from Asia into Europe to assist Antipater against the Athenians, and was killed in a battle which was fought soon after his arrival.

LEONIDAS, a celebrated king of Lacedæmon, of the family of the Eurysthénidæ, sent by his countrymen to oppose Xerxes, king of Persia, who had invaded Greece with an immense army.

LEOSTHENES, an Athenian general, who after Alexander's death drove Antipater to Thessaly, where he besieged him in the town of Lamia. The success which for a while attended his arms, was soon changed by a fatal blow which he received from a stone thrown by the besieged, B. C. 323. The death of Leosthenes was followed by the total defeat of the Athenian forces.

LEOTYCHIDES, a king of Sparta, son of Menares, of the family of the Proclidæ. He was set over the Grecian fleet, and, by his courage and valour, he put an end to the Persian war at the famous battle of Mycale. It is said that he cheered the spirits of his fellow-soldiers at Mycale, who

were anxious for their countrymen in Greece, by raising a report that a battle had been fought at Platæa, in which the barbarians had been defeated. This succeeded, and though the information was premature, yet a battle was fought at Platæa, in which the Greeks obtained the victory the same day that the Persian fleet was destroyed at Mycale. Leotychides was accused of a capital crime by the Ephori, and, to avoid the punishment which his guilt seemed to deserve, he fled to the temple of Minerva, at Tegea, where he perished, B. C. 469, after a reign of twenty-two years.

LEPANTO, battle of, between the Turks and Spaniards, in October, 1571. The Turks being at anchor in the gulf, and hearing that the Christians bore down upon them from Corfu, reinforced their fleet. The Ottoman fleet consisted of 250 gallies, 70 frigates and brigantines. The Christian fleet consisted of 210 galleys, twenty-eight transports, and six galleasses, furnished with heavy artillery, commanded by John of Austria, including the Spanish squadron furnished by Philip II.; the Venetian, with the flower of the nobility of Venice, and the pope's gallies. The Ottoman fleet alone was stronger than the three Christian squadrons. The two forces engaged with all the antient and modern weapons of defence, viz. arrows, javelins, grappling-irons, cannon, muskets, pikes, and swords. They fought hand-to-hand, or most of the galleys grappled together. Don John of Austria, and Veniero, the Venetian commander, attacked the Ottoman admiral Ali, and having taken him and his galley, they immediately struck off his head, and placed it on the top of his own flag. The Turks lost upwards of 150 vessels. Their number of slain was about 15,000, and 5000 Christian slaves were set at liberty. The Christians are said to have lost about 8,000 men. The battle lasted from six in the morning till evening, when the approaching darkness, and the roughness of the sea, compelled the victors to put into the

nearest havens; whence they dispatched couriers to all Christian courts, with the news of the triumph.

LEPIDUS, (M. *Æmilius*), a Roman, celebrated as being one of the triumvirs with Augustus and Antony. He was sent against Cæsar's murderers, and some time after, he leagued with M. Antony, who had gained the heart of his soldiers by artifice, and that of their commander by his address. When his influence and power among the soldiers had made him one of the triumvirs, he shewed his cruelty, like his colleagues, by his proscriptions, and even suffered his own brother to be sacrificed to the dagger of the triumvirate. He received Africa as his portion in the division of the empire; but his indolence soon rendered him despicable in the eyes of his soldiers and of his colleagues; and Augustus, who was well acquainted with the unpopularity of Lepidus, went to his camp and obliged him to resign the power to which he was entitled as being a triumvir. After this degrading event, he sunk into obscurity, and retired, by order of Augustus, to Cerceli, a small town on the coast of Latium, where he ended his days in peace, B. C. 18, and where he was forgotten as soon as out of power.

LESLEY, (Alexander,) a celebrated Scottish general, under Gustavus of Sweden, recalled by his countrymen to command against Charles I., in which wars he had great success. He was made earl of Leven.

LESLEY, (David,) served under Gustavus. He commanded the Scottish horse at the battle of Marston Moor, and was defeated at Dunbar and Worcester by the forces of Cromwell.

LEUCTRA, a village of Bœtia, between Platæa and Thespia, famous for the victory which Epaminondas the Theban general obtained over the superior force of Cleombrotus, king of Sparta, on the 8th of July, B. C. 371. In this famous battle 4000 Spartans were killed, with their king Cleombrotus, and no more than 300 Thebans.

From that time the Spartans lost the empire of Greece, which they had obtained for near 500 years.

LEVEN-LOCH, a lake of Scotland, in Kinross-shire. The castle of Loch-Leven was the seat of Gongal, son of Dougart, king of the Picts, who is said to have founded it. It was granted by Robert III. to Douglas, laird of Loch-Leven, and was formerly a very strong place, and could accommodate a numerous garrison. In 1225, this castle, according to some historians, sustained a memorable siege by sir John Stirling, one of the partisans of Edward Baliol, who contested the crown with David I. It was in this castle that queen Mary was confined after she had separated from Bothwell, and was made captive by the confederate lords, at the battle of Carberry-hill. After various ineffectual attempts, however, she at length effected her escape.

LEWES, a borough and market-town of Sussex. On a hill near this place was fought an obstinate battle in 1263, between king Henry III. and the army of the barons under Simon de Montford, earl of Leicester. The king and his brother were taken prisoners.

LEXINGTON, battle of, on the 19th of April, 1775, when general Gage, commander-in-chief, having dispatched a party to seize some military stores at Lexington and Concord in New England, several skirmishes ensued, in which many were killed on both sides, and the royal troops would probably have been all cut off, had not a reinforcement arrived to their relief.

LEYDEN, a city of the Netherlands, in south Holland. In the history of Leyden, the most conspicuous event is the famous siege which it sustained in 1573, against the Spaniards.

LICINIUS, (C. Flavius Valerianus,) a celebrated Roman emperor. His valour recommended him to the notice of Galerius Maximianus, who had once shared with him the inferior and subordinate offices of the army, and had lately been invested with the imperial purple by Diocletian. Galerius loved him for his friendly services,

particularly during the Persian war; and he shewed his regard for his merit, by taking him as a colleague in the empire, and appointing him over the province of Pannonia and Rhætia. Constantine, who was also one of the emperors, courted the favour of Licinius, and made his intimacy more durable by giving him his sister Constantia in marriage, A. D. 313. The continual successes of Licinius, particularly against Maximinus, increased his pride, and rendered him jealous of the greatness of his brother-in-law. The persecutions of the Christians, whose doctrines Constantine followed, soon caused a rupture, and Licinius had the mortification to lose two battles, one in Pannonia, and the other near Adrianopolis. Treaties of peace were made between the contending powers, but the restless ambition of Licinius soon broke them; and after many engagements a decisive battle was fought near Chalcedon. Ill fortune again attended Licinius, who was conquered, and fled to Nicomedia, where soon the conqueror obliged him to surrender, and to resign the imperial purple. The tears of Constantia soon obtained forgiveness for her husband, yet Constantine knew what a turbulent and active enemy had fallen into his hands, therefore he ordered him to be strangled at Thessalonica, A. D. 324.

LIEGNITZ, a town of Lower Silesia. On the 10th of August, 1760, the king of Prussia obtained a victory over the Austrian general Laudohn, between this place and Parchwitz.

LIGNY, a village of the Netherlands, in the province of Namur, remarkable as the scene of an obstinate and sanguinary battle between the Prussians and the French, in June, 1815, which was the prelude to the decisive battle of Waterloo. On the 16th Blücher was attacked by Bonaparte, with his whole force; except two corps under Ney; and the first corps under d'Erlon. A furious conflict ensued, in which the villages of St. Amand and Ligny fell into the possession of the French. The combatants

displayed the most determined animosity, and no quarter was asked, offered, or accepted. A desperate attack of the Prussians, led by marshal Blücher in person, suddenly recovered St. Amand and a height in its vicinity, and the fortune of the day seemed to turn in their favour. Bonaparte instantly dispatched orders, to bring up the corps under d'Erlon, but ere its arrival the French had recovered the village. Wellington meantime was desirous to relieve the Prussians, but he was himself attacked; and, as the fourth corps under Bülow had not arrived, Blücher was obliged to withdraw from his position at Sombré, and retire upon Tilly.

LILLO, a fortress of the Netherlands, province of Antwerp. In 1588, it was attacked by the Spaniards; but they were obliged to retire, with the loss of 2,000 men. It was given up to the emperor by the Dutch, in 1785, and taken by the French in 1794.

LILBURNE (John), an enthusiast, was born in the county of Durham, in 1618. In 1636 Dr. Bastwick persuaded him to go to Holland, to superintend the printing some libels against the government. With this cargo he returned, and soon after was taken up, and sentenced to be first whipped, then to stand in the pillory, and afterwards confined in the Fleet. The Long Parliament, however, remunerated him for what he had endured, by profuse grants of sequestered estates. He fought at the battle of Edgehill as a captain of foot; but at Brentford he was made prisoner, and carried to Oxford, where he would have been hanged, had not the parliament threatened retaliation. He then obtained his liberty, and was made first a major, and afterwards a colonel of dragoons. Being of a quarrelsome temper, he libelled the earl of Manchester, for which he was sent to the Tower, where he remained till 1648. He had not been long out of confinement before he was banished the kingdom. After residing some time in Holland, he returned in 1657 and was

HISTORY.

tried at the Old Bailey, but acquitted. He now settled at Eltham, where he died the same year.

LIMERICK, a city of Ireland, capital of the county of Limerick, was taken by the English in 1174. In 1651 it was taken by Ireton, in the service of the parliament, after a vigorous siege. In 1690, it was unsuccessfully besieged by king William in person. In 1691 it surrendered to general Ginkle, earl of Athlone, on terms of capitulation very advantageous to the besieged.

LINLITHGOW, the county-town of Linlithgowshire in Scotland. In the reign of Robert Bruce its castle was taken by stratagem. At Linlithgowbridge a battle was fought between the earls of Arran and Lennox, in the minority of James V. In a house now rebuilt, on the south side of the street, Hamilton shot the regent Murray, on the 23d of January, 1569; and it was here that the solemn league and covenant was burnt in 1662.

LISLE, or **LILLE**, a large and strong city in the north-east of France, formerly the capital of French Flanders. Louis XIV. took it from the Spaniards in 1667; but notwithstanding the vast labour and expense bestowed in his reign on its fortifications, it surrendered in 1708, after a long and sanguinary siege, to the allies under the duke of Marlborough and prince Eugene. At the peace of Utrecht, it was restored to France, and was no more attacked till 1792, when the Austrians assailed it with a heavy bombardment, but the garrison, aided by the inhabitants, repelled them.

LITHUANIA was governed by its own duke till 1396, when Jajelon, duke of Lithuania, by marrying Hedwiga, queen of Poland, became king of that country. From that time, Lithuania was held as a fief to Poland: and, in 1501, Alexander, duke of Lithuania, succeeding to the crown of Poland, the union of the two countries was confirmed. In 1772, great part of Lithuania was annexed to the Russian dominions; as was, in 1794, the remainder, except a small por-

tion, which, in the final division of Poland, fell to Prussia.

LOBAU, an island in the Danube, a few miles below Vienna, where the French passed that river to fight the memorable battle of Aspern, (21st and 22d May, 1809,) and into which they withdrew after their repulse. They crossed it again, under better auspices, to fight the battle of Wagram, in the beginning of July.

LOCRI. The inhabitants of this country were divided into three tribes; the Locri Ozolæ, or Epizephyrii, the Locri Epiensimidi, and the Locri Opuntii. They were a brave and warlike people, and signalized themselves in maintaining the liberty of Greece.

LODI, a large town of Austrian Italy. One of the most daring exploits that characterised the commencement of Bonaparte's military career, was performed here in 1796, by forcing, with the bayonet, the passage of the bridge over the Adda, though defended by 10,000 Austrians.

LOMBARDS.—The Lombards, leaving Scandinavia, their original country, attacked and vanquished the Vandals in Scoringa, and afterwards migrated into Mauringa, and thence into Gothland. In the reign of their king Adoinus, the Lombards were masters of the champaign country bordering on the Danube, and many of them fixed their abode in Pannonia. On the demise of Adoinus, his son Alboinus succeeded to the sovereignty, A. D. 553, and gained some important advantages over the Gepidæ. In the space of three years, this prince rendered himself master of all that territory which comprehended Venetia, Liguria, Umbria, Æmilia, and Etruria, and was proclaimed king of Italy amidst the acclamations of his followers. He made choice of Pavia for the metropolis of his new kingdom, and in each of the cities which he had reduced, placed a strong garrison, under the command of an officer, whom he honoured with the title of duke. On the death of Alboinus, who was assassinated, the Lombards elected

for their king, Clephis, a man of known valour and abilities. This prince extended his conquests to the very gates of Rome, but was murdered by his own subjects, whose hatred he had incurred by the cruelty of his disposition. The Lombards now resolved to abolish the monarchical form of government; but after living for the space of ten years under their dukes, or commanders of cities, they raised to the throne Anstharis, the son of Clephis, A. D. 585, who assumed the name of Flavius, which he ordered to be used by all his successors. He subdued the province of Samnium, and the city of Benevento, and projected the reduction of Rome and of the exarchate of Ravenna; but was taken off by poison, after a reign of six years. Agilulf, duke of Turin, who possessed extraordinary merit, was next raised to the throne, A. D. 590, and, at the request of his queen Theudelinda, embraced the Catholic faith. On the death of Agilulf, his son Adaluald was invested with the regal title, A. D. 615; but being persuaded to put twelve of the Lombard nobles to death, he and his mother were instantly deposed; the former of whom was taken off by poison, and the latter fell a victim to unconquerable grief. The nobility now placed on the throne Ariovald, duke of Turin, who had espoused the daughter of the deposed king, and whose reign was marked by public tranquillity both at home and abroad. On his death, A. D. 636, the Lombards elected to the sovereignty Rotharis, duke of Cremona, who has been equally commended for his valour, equity, and moderation, and who promulgated written laws, augmented his dominions by the reduction of all the cities in Venetia, hitherto held by the Romans, and died in the full possession of his people's affections. He left his kingdom to his son Rodwald, who followed not the example of his father, and was assassinated by a Lombard, whose wife he had seduced. Aripert reigned nine years, and divided the kingdom between his two sons, Partharit and Gunde-

bert; the former of whom fixed his residence at Milan, and the latter at Pavia. Grimoald, duke of Benevento, finding himself stronger than either of the two brothers, united both treachery and cunning to gain possession of the whole kingdom. He murdered Gundeibert in his own palace at Pavia: and Partharit, on being informed of this atrocious act, left Milan, and escaped into Gaul. Grimoald wore the crown more honourably than he had acquired it; and having completely defeated the emperor Constans, A. D. 663, improved his victory by the reduction of several places of importance. On the death of Grimoald, Partharit returned, and associated with him in the kingdom his son Cunipert, whom he had left behind him. Cunipert was driven from the throne by Alachis, duke of Trent, but restored by the principal men among the Lombards, and died universally lamented by his subjects. He was succeeded by his son, Luitbert, a minor whom Ragumbert, duke of Turin, after causing himself to be proclaimed king of the Lombards, A. D. 703, ordered to be stifled in a bath. However, Asprand, who had been left guardian to the young prince, drove from the throne Aripert, the son of the usurper, and was invested with the regal dignity by the unanimous consent of the people. Luitprand, the son and successor of Asprand, led his forces against Ravenna, which he reduced by storm, A. D. 722; but which Gregory II. bishop of Rome, assisted in retaking from him. This prince was equitable and munificent, always treated his subjects as his own children, and his only faults resulted from an insatiate desire of conquest. He was succeeded by his grandson Hildebrand, whom the Lombards deposed on account of his inability to govern, and bestowed the sovereignty on Rachis, duke of Friuli, A. D. 743. This prince was universally esteemed for the suavity of his disposition, and the sanctity of his manners; but after reigning a few years, he renounced his kingdom, and re-

HISTORY.

fired to the monastery of Monte Cassino, where he died. On the resignation of Rachis, A. D. 751, the Lombards bestowed the crown on his brother Astulphus, who was equally admired for his courage in action, and his prudence in council; and who, after reducing Ravenna and some other places, threatened to plunder Rome. The pope, greatly alarmed, prevailed on Pepin, king of France, to espouse his cause by making war on the Lombards. Accordingly, Pepin entered Italy at the head of a numerous army, and compelled Astulphus to restore Ravenna, and the other places which he had taken. On the demise of this prince, Desiderius, duke of Tuscany assumed the regal title, A. D. 756, and married his two daughters to Charles and Carloman, who had succeeded Pepin on the throne of France. However, Desiderius having a dispute with Adrian the pope, Charlemagne entered Italy, and attacked the Lombards with such irresistible fury, that they fled before him in the utmost consternation. Desiderius took refuge in Pavia, and was compelled, after a long and obstinate resistance, to surrender the city to the royal besieger, who sent him and his unfortunate family prisoners to France, A. D. 774, and abolished the kingdom of the Lombards in Italy, after they had possessed that country for the space of 206 years.

LONDON, fortified by the Romans, 50; walled, and a palace built, 294; made a bishopric, 633; repaired by Alfred, 885; greatly damaged by a fire, 982, 1027, and 1130; not paved, 1090; houses of timber thatched with straw, but to prevent fire, ordered to be built with stone, and covered with slates, 1192, but the order not observed; a charter by king John to the Londoners to choose a mayor out of their own body, annually (this office formerly was for life), to elect and remove their sheriffs at pleasure, and their common-councilmen annually, 1208; a common hunt first appointed, 1226; aldermen first appointed, 1242; the houses still thatched with straw,

Chesepside lay out of the city, 1246; all built of wood, 1300; their privileges taken away, but restored on submission, 1360; the first lord-mayor sworn at Westminster that went by water, 1433; the lord-mayor's show instituted, 1453; a sheriff fined 50*l.* for kneeling too near the lord-mayor, when at prayers in St. Paul's cathedral, 1486; the Thames water first conveyed into the city, 1582; the city chiefly built of wood, and in every respect very irregular, 1600; the New River brought to London, 1613; the lord-mayor and sheriffs arrested at the suit of two pretended sheriffs, April 24, 1652; the greatest part of the city destroyed by fire, 1666; Pilkington and Shute, the city sheriffs, sent prisoners to the Tower, for continuing a poll after the lord-mayor had adjourned it, 1682; the charter of the city declared forfeited to the crown, June 12, 1682; privileges taken away, but restored, 1688; built a mansion-house, 1737; furnished and inhabited the same, 1752; repaired London-bridge, 1758, when government granted them 15,000*l.* and permitted them to pull down the gates, 1760; began Blackfriars-bridge, October 31, 1760; the common-council ordered to wear blue mazarine gowns, September 14, 1761; lost their cause against the dissenters serving sheriffs, July 8, 1762; the city remonstrated on the king's paying no attention to their petition for a redress of grievances, and was censured, March, 1770; Brass Crosby, esq. lord-mayor, and alderman Oliver, sent to the Tower by the house of commons, for committing their messenger, March, 1771; trade greatly injured by bankruptcies, 1772; regulation of admitting the livery at Guildhall, by Mr. Stone's scheme, 1774; the common-councilmen discontinued the wearing of their mazarine gowns in court, in 1775; the city abandoned to the mercy of a mob, July 3, 1780.

LONDONDERRY, the capital of the county of Londonderry, in Ireland, was besieged in 1641, and rescued from the Irish, by whom, in 1649, it was again successfully besieged. In 1688, it sustained

from the whole Irish forces, under King James, a memorable siege, which lasted from the month of December, 1688, till August, 1689; when all the efforts of King James were completely foiled. Londonderry was weak in its fortifications, having only a wall eight or nine feet thick, and weaker still in its artillery, there being not above twenty serviceable guns on the works. The garrison, however, supplied every deficiency by their spirit: one Walker, a dissenting minister, and major Baker, put themselves at the head of these resolute men, and prepared for a vigorous resistance. The batteries of the besiegers soon began to play upon the town with great fury; and several attacks were made, but always repulsed with resolution. All the success that valour could promise was on the side of the garrison, but after some time, their strength was exhausted by continual fatigue; they were afflicted also with a contagious distemper, which thinned their numbers; and as there were many useless mouths in the city, they began to be reduced to the greatest extremities for want of provisions. When they had consumed the last remains of their stores, they supported life by eating horses, dogs, and all kinds of vermin; but even this loathsome food began to fail. They had still further the misery of seeing above 4,000 of their fellow-protestants, from different parts of the country, driven under the walls of the town, where they were kept three whole days without food. General Kirke, who, in the meantime, had been detached to their relief, receiving intelligence that the garrison, worn out with fatigue and famine, had sent proposals of capitulation, resolved to attempt to throw in a supply of provisions, by means of three victuallers, and a frigate to cover them. As soon as the vessels sailed up the river, the eyes of all were fixed upon them; the besiegers eager to destroy, the inhabitants as anxious to defend them. The foremost of the victuallers, at the first shock, broke the boom, and was stranded

by the violence of the concussion. Upon this a shout burst from the besiegers, that resounded from the camp to the city. They advanced with fury against a prize which they considered as inevitably theirs, whilst the smoke of the cannon, on both sides, wrapped the whole scene in darkness. But, to the astonishment of all, the ship was seen emerging from imminent danger, having got off by the rebound of her own guns; while she led up her little squadron to the very walls of the town. The joy of the inhabitants was only exceeded by the rage and disappointment of the besiegers.

LONDONDERRY, marquis of, more generally known under the title of lord Castlereagh, an active statesman in the reigns of George III. and IV. by whose intrigues the legislative union of Ireland was effected; and who, as secretary-of-state promoted those measures by which the Irish were coerced into submission, and by which the confederacy of the European powers was concentrated against France, under Napoleon. In August, 1822, he was appointed minister from Great Britain to a congress at Verona, but two days before his intended departure he destroyed himself in a fit of mental distraction.

LONGFORD, a town of Ireland, capital of the county of Longford. In 1429, destroyed by fire; in 1641 it was taken by the Irish rebels and the garrison in the castle murdered, after a promise of quarter.

LOVEL, lord, joined the rebels against Henry VII. in 1486, and, at the head of three or 4,000 men, proceeded to attack the king in the city of York. But by the judicious conduct of the duke of Bedford, his aim was averted, and his plans frustrated. Terrified with the fear of desertion among his troops, Lovel withdrew himself into Flanders, where he was protected by the duchess of Burgundy. Lovel, together with Lincoln, were sent over, with a body of 2,000 veteran Germans, under the command of Martin Stewart, to join Simnel in Ireland, a youth of fifteen years of age, the son of a

baker, who had been instructed to personate the earl of Warwick, son of the duke of Clarence. He fought at the famous battle of Stoke, and as he was never more heard of, he was believed to have fallen in the conflict. A singular circumstance, however, occurred in the last century, which renders it probable that he died at his own magnificent seat at Minster Lovel, Oxfordshire. The walls of that edifice having been pulled down, a secret chamber was discovered with a trap-door, and in it a skeleton of a person in complete armour was found. From hence it was supposed that this was the body of lord Lovel, who, after escaping from the battle of Stoke, took refuge in this place, and from some cause, not now to be accounted for, was left to perish in his concealment.

LOUIS IV. the son of Charles the Simple, succeeded to the throne in 936. He endeavoured to retake Lorraine, which his father had left to Henry king of England; but he was repulsed by Otho, Henry's son. He next entered into a league with Hugo the Great, in 943, to make himself master of Normandy; but in this he failed, and was taken prisoner. He died in 954.—Louis VII., surnamed the Younger, was born in 1120, and crowned at Rheims 1131. Louis engaged himself in the contest between Geoffrey V., surnamed Plantagenet, earl of Anjou, and Stephen of Blois, king of England, in a dispute respecting the dukedom of Normandy; he also made war against Thibaud, earl of Champagne, and laid all his country waste, but 1300 persons were burnt in a church at the taking of Vitry le Patois, in 1143, at which the king was extremely grieved; and, to atone for this crime, he undertook a journey to the Holy Land. On his return, he divorced his queen, Eleanor, in 1152, and surrendered to her the earldoms of Guienne and Poitou. Eleanor marrying with Henry II. of England, who thus obtained possession of those provinces, and becoming very powerful in France by this acquisition, Henry attempted to seize the earldom of Toulouse. This quarrel gave rise to

those bloody wars which lasted so long between England and France: In 1106, Louis took the earldom of Chalons from William I. and for two years maintained a war against the king of England, which terminated in 1170, by the peace of St. Germain; notwithstanding which, he did not cease to support the king of England's sons, who were in rebellion against their father. He died at Paris, in 1180, and was buried near Fontainebleau.—Louis VIII., surnamed the Lion, for his courage and bravery, was the son of Philip Augustus, and was born in 1187. He followed his father to the war of Flanders, where he was left with a strong body of horse, and burnt Courtray, in 1213. From thence he was sent into Poitou against the king of England. Afterwards he joined the crusade against the Albigenes, in 1215, and took several places from them in Languedoc. Some time after, the English established him in opposition to king John, and crowned him in London, May, 1216. But having lost the battle of Lincoln, he was forced to return to France, September 28, 1217, when he again turned his arms against the Albigenes. He succeeded his father in 1223, and was crowned at Rheims the same year. Soon after his coronation, he took from the English all the country beyond the Garonne, having before taken from them, Limosin, Perigord, and Aunis, and burnt their ships. After this, the king began a third expedition against the Albigenes, who had settled themselves in the city Albi in Languedoc, notwithstanding Simon of Montfort had already several times defeated them, and especially at the famous battle of Muret, where he killed 24,000 men, and took Avignon from them, September 12, the walls whereof he caused to be pulled down. He afterwards took from them Carcassone, Beziers, Pamiers, and made himself absolute master of the country, to the gates of Toulouse. On his return from which expedition he died (not without suspicion of having been poisoned) at Auvergne, Nov. 8, 1223.—Louis IX. commonly styled St.

Louis, was the son of Louis VIII. and was born in 1215. Being an infant at the time of his father's death, the regency was confined to Blanche of Castille, the queen-dowager. Scarcely had Louis attained the age of twenty-one years, and taken the reins of government into his own hands, when Henry III. of England demanded the provinces which Louis VIII. had promised to restore. A tender was made of Poictou, and the part of Normandy; but Henry was resolved to try the issue of a battle. His army was defeated on the banks of the Charente. In 1248, he undertook a crusade to the Holy Land, and having landed in Egypt, Damietta was abandoned by the Saracens on the approach of his troops, who advanced to Cairo, in full confidence of success. The count d'Artois, one of the king's brothers, having, with 2000 cavalry crossed the Nile, was attacked by the Saracens, and as well as his followers, cut in pieces. Louis, who hastened to his assistance, was himself repulsed with great slaughter, and obliged to fortify himself at Damietta. Famine and disease now made dreadful havoc in the French army, and Louis, having again taken the field, was himself made prisoner, and the whole of his army either killed or taken. He was ransomed by the sultan, and proceeded to Palestine, where he passed three years, in projecting a new attack on the infidels. He then returned to France, and after much debate he ceded the provinces of Limousin, Perigord, and Quercy, to England, on condition that Henry and his descendants should renounce every further claim. Louis having resolved on another crusade, and received the promise of assistance from the king of Tunis, the French army embarked, and sailed towards that port, but on their arrival, they found the idolaters under arms. Louis, enraged at this treachery, forced his way into the port, attacked Carthage, and carried the citadel without resistance. The French army was now nearly exhausted, when Charles,

the king's younger brother, arrived; but the plague had made great ravages among the troops, and had even penetrated the royal tent; and Charles came just in time to see Louis perish from its attack.—Louis XI. the son of Charles VII. was born in 1423. In 1440, he put himself at the head of a faction called le Praguerie, against the king, his father, with whom he afterwards became reconciled. He was at the siege of Tartas, in 1442, and afterwards at the raising of that of Dieppe besieged by the English. The year after, he defeated 6000 Swiss, near the city of Basil; on his return, the king sent him into Guienne, where he seized the earl of Armagnac and his wife, and some time after he retired into Dauphiny, where he pillaged the people and the clergy, took up arms against his father, and leagued himself with the malcontents. The fear of being surrounded by his father's forces, however, induced him to leave Dauphiny, and betake himself to the duke of Burgundy, where hearing of his father's death, which happened July 22, 1461, he returned, and was drowned, August 15. He removed all the princes and nobility from his court, who then engaged the principal persons of the kingdom in a league, to which they gave the name of the Public Good. The duke of Berry, the king's brother, the dukes of Bretagne and Bourbon, and the earl of Chajolois, son of the Duke of Burgundy, were the chief men of this party. The king, who marched to defend Paris, met them near Mont le hen, where, on Tuesday, July 2, 1465, a battle was fought, with equal loss on both sides. Louis, foreseeing the fatal consequences that in all probability must ensue upon such disorders, broke the league, by a peace concluded October following at Confans, by which he gave Normandy to his brother: the count of Charlorois was put in possession of Ponthieu and the Boulounois; Louis did not, however, long conform to these stipulations, but notwithstanding all his intrigues and flattery, he was

HISTORY.

drawn into a snare, and compelled to sign the treaty of Peronne, which put his brother in possession of Champagne and Brie. The latter was, however, soon poisoned; and, it was thought, Louis was the author of the atrocious deed. The young duke of Burgundy revenged the death of his friend, but in the midst of brilliant projects, he was assassinated. Louis fell a prey to the horrors of a guilty conscience, and retired to his chateau, where he died in 1483.—Louis XII. was born in 1462, and succeeded to the crown of France in 1498. He became the dupe of his allies, who prevailed on him to attempt the conquest of Genoa, Naples, and Milan, the issue of which proved unfortunate. In his war against the Spaniards he was equally unsuccessful; his army being defeated, and his fleet of observation, which was stationed off the coast of Catalonia, driven into port. Henry VIII. of England having waged a successful war on the French territory, suddenly broke with his allies; and, having made peace with Louis, bestowed on him the hand of his sister. In the midst of his preparations to recover the loss he had sustained in Italy, Louis died in 1515.—Louis XIII. was born in 1601, succeeded his father, Henry IV., in 1610; and, being a minor, was placed under the regency of Mary of Medicis, the widowed queen of Henry IV. In 1611, Sully retired from the court, and was succeeded by Concini, mareschal d'Ancre, who gained unlimited sway. He supported Mary de Medicis in all her prodigal measures; but his unpopular career was terminated by an assassin, and the queen-mother was exiled to Blois. Richelieu reconciled the queen and Louis, and, in 1624, his administration commenced. (See *Richelieu*.) He died in 1642, and was soon followed by Louis, who survived the cardinal only a few months.—Louis XIV., son of the preceding monarch, ascended the throne in 1643, under the regency of his mother, Anne of Austria, who chose cardinal Mazarin as her minister. In the war against Spain

and Austria, the Duke d'Enghien and marshal Turenne were victorious in Germany and the Netherlands. By the peace of Westphalia, in 1648, France gained Alsace, the Sundgau, Breisach, and the right to the garrison of Philippsburg. In 1648, the civil-war of the Frondeurs, against Mazarin, commenced, when Mazarin was relieved by the great prince of Condé. In 1650, Condé formed an independent party, but was arrested and imprisoned. In 1652, he was defeated by the royalists, under Turenne, at the battle of St. Antoine. In 1653, Mazarin resumed the ministry, and Condé joined the Spaniards, the war against whom was vigorously carried on by Turenne. By the peace of the Pyrenees, in 1659, Louis gained Roussillon and Gonslans, a great acquisition of territory; and, in 1660, the daughter of Philip IV. in marriage. In 1661, Mazarin died, and Louis took upon himself the affairs of government. He chose Baptist Colbert minister of Finance; under whom, the arts, commerce, and manufactures greatly flourished. On the death of Philip IV., of Spain, Louis began the career of those conquests which acquired him the title of *Great*. By virtue of his marriage with Maria Theresa of Austria, he laid claim to Cambresis, Franche-comte, Luxembourg, and a great part of the Spanish Netherlands, and entered Flanders at the head of an army of 35,000 men. However, the triple alliance of England, Sweden, and Holland, compelled the French monarch to renounce all but Flanders, and to conclude the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1668. Louvois now became minister-of-war; and, in 1670, Louis effected the dissolution of the triple alliance; overran great part of Holland, and compelled Brandenburg to conclude a treaty of neutrality, in 1673. In 1674, Louis, being abandoned by his former allies, formed a league with Sweden, and resolved to humble the republic of Holland. He made a sham attack on Bommel by sea; but the prince of Condé being compelled to retreat,

with his army, the United Provinces were lost to France. In 1675, Turenne perished before Sülzbach. At length, a treaty was signed at Nimeguen, in 1678, when all the provinces wrested from the Dutch were restored, and Louis gained Franche-Comté, Dunkirk, and part of Flanders. In 1681, the Chambers of Re-union were erected, and, in 1684, Louis seized Strasbourg, Luxemburg, and Zweibrück. In the same year, Louis sent a fleet against Genoa; and, in the following year, he bombarded Tripoli and Tunis. In 1685, he revoked the edict of Nantes, when the Protestants were compelled to fly for safety. In 1688, he took possession of Avignon and the Palatinate of the Rhine, which he devastated in the following year. The fortune of Louis was now on the decline. Louvois died in 1691; and, in 1692, the French fleet was destroyed by the British at La Hogue. The French were, however, victorious in Spain and the Netherlands, under Vendôme and Luxemburg. In 1696, Louis concluded the peace of Turin with Savoy; and, in the following year, the peace of Ryswick was concluded, when Louis restored his conquests, won after the death of Charles II. of Spain. In 1700 the Spanish succession-war commenced, when Louis declared for Philip of Anjou, in opposition to Charles, archduke of Austria, supported by the European confederates. War was now declared against France; the defeats at Blenheim, Ramillies, Oudenarde, and Malplaquet followed, and Marlborough and Eugene were every where triumphant. Louis sued for peace, in vain, but a change in the English cabinet gave a new turn to the politics of Europe; and, in 1713, the peace of Utrecht was concluded, was followed by that of Radstadt, between marshal Villars and prince Eugene, when Louis ceded his possessions in America to England, and his Italian dominions to Austria and Savoy. In 1715, Louis died, in the seventy-second year of his reign, at the age of 77.—Louis XV. was only five years old on the death of the

preceding monarch, and was placed under the regency of the duke of Orleans. In 1726, the ministry of cardinal Fleury commenced, and, on his death, Louis took on himself the management of public affairs, and declared war against England and Hungary. After a life spent in the greatest voluptuousness, Louis died, an object of general odium, in 1774.—Louis XVI. (See France.)

LOUISBURG, a town and capital of the island of Cape Breton. It was taken from the French by the English fleet, under sir Peter Warren, and our American forces, commanded by sir William Pepperal, in the year 1745; but afterwards restored to France by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748. It was again taken by the English, under the command of admiral Boscawen, and general Amherst, in 1758, and its fortifications since demolished.

LOUIS, (Fort,) a barrier-fortress in the north-east of France, in Alsace. It was taken in November, 1793, by the Austrians, who blew up the works on their retreat next year; but the French soon after restored them to their original strength.

LOUISIANA was discovered by the French in 1683. In 1718, they took possession of it under de la Sale; but as much of it as lies to the east of the river Mississippi was relinquished to the English at the peace in 1763, and ceded to the Spaniards in 1763.

LOWESTOFF, a market-town of Suffolk. Off this town, June 3, 1665, was fought a very sanguinary naval engagement, between the Dutch fleet, and the English under the duke of York.

LOWOSITZ, a small town in the north of Bohemia. An obstinate battle was fought here in 1766, in which the Saxons and Poles were defeated by the Prussians, and the town reduced to ashes.

LUBECK, a free city in the north of Germany. On the defeat of the Prussians at Jena, Blücher, who had commanded one of the wings, retreated to the north, fought several actions with a superior force, threw himself into this

city, and did not surrender till after a sanguinary conflict. Lu-beck suffered much on this occasion, and was soon after deprived of its liberty, being annexed to the French dominions in 1810. In 1813, it was delivered by the allied troops, and was soon after declared free by the congress of Vienna.

LUCULLUS, (Lucius Licinius,) a Roman, celebrated for his fondness of luxury and for his military talents. His first military campaign was in the Marsian war, where his valour and cool intrepidity recommended him to public notice. He was raised to the consulship A. U. C. 680, and entrusted with the care of the Mithridatic war, and first displayed his military talents in rescuing his colleague Cotta, whom the enemy had besieged in Chalcidonia. This was soon followed by a celebrated victory over the forces of Mithridates, on the borders of the Granicus, and by the conquest of all Bithynia. His victories by sea were as great as those by land, and Mithridates lost a powerful fleet near Lemnos. Such considerable losses weakened the enemy, and Mithridates retired with precipitation towards Armenia, to the court of king Tigranes, his father-in-law. His flight was perceived, and Lucullus crossed the Euphrates with great expedition, and gave battle to the numerous forces which Tigranes had already assembled to support the cause of his son-in-law. According to the exaggerated account of Plutarch, no less than 100,000 foot, and near 55,000 horse, of the Armenians, lost their lives in that celebrated battle. All this carnage was made by a Roman army amounting to no more than 18,400 men, of whom only five were killed and 100 wounded during the combat. The taking of Tigranocerta, the capital of Armenia, was the consequence of this immortal victory, and Lucullus there obtained the greatest part of the royal treasures. This continual success, however, was attended with serious consequences. The severity of Lucullus, and the lightness of his commands, offended his soldiers, and displeased his adherents at Rome. Pompey

was soon after sent to succeed him, and to continue the Mithridatic war, and the interview which he had with Lucullus began with acts of mutual kindness, and ended in the most inveterate reproaches, and open enmity. Lucullus was permitted to retire to Rome, and only 1000 of the soldiers, who had shared his fortune and his glories, were suffered to accompany him. He was received with coldness at Rome, and he obtained with difficulty a triumph, which was deservedly claimed by his fame, his successes, and his victories. In this ended the days of his glory; he retired to the enjoyment of ease and peaceful society, and no longer interested himself in the commotions which disturbed the tranquillity of Rome. His house was enriched with a valuable library, which was opened for the service of the curious, and of the learned. Lucullus fell into a delirium in the last part of his life, and died in the 67th or 68th year of his age. The people showed their respect for his merit by their wish to give him an honourable burial in the Campus Martius; but their offers were rejected, and he was privately buried, by his brother, on his estate at Tusculum.

LUDLOW, (Edmund,) a republican general, was born at Maiden Bradley, in Wiltshire, in 1620. He became a captain of horse in the parliamentary service. He was present at the battle of Edge-hill; and, in 1644, was made prisoner at Wardour-castle, but was soon exchanged. In 1645, he succeeded his father as representative in parliament for the county of Wilts. He also sat as one of the judges at the trial of the king, and signed the death-warrant; after which he concurred in voting down the House of Lords. When Cromwell became captain-general of the army, he got rid of Ludlow, by sending him to Ireland, where he was lieutenant-general of the horse. He zealously opposed the usurper, on whose death he was returned to the new parliament, and he also sat in that which was called the Rump. In 1650, he resumed the command in Ireland, but his stay

there was short; and finding that the king's judges were excepted out of the act of indemnity, he withdrew to Switzerland. After the Revolution he ventured to appear in London, which gave such offence, that an address was presented to king William, by the House of Commons, praying his majesty to issue a proclamation for apprehending him. On this Ludlow went back to Vevay, in Switzerland, where he died, in 1693.

LUNCARTY, or **LONCARTY**, a place in Scotland, famous as the scene of a great battle in 976, between the Scots and the Danes, in which the latter were completely overthrown.

LUNEVILLE, treaty of, concluded between the Austrians and the French republic. After several armistices had been entered into between Austria and the French republic, and as often suffered to expire from the jarring interests of the different powers, Austria at length found it necessary to enter into a treaty for peace, separate and alone, which, after many delays, was definitively agreed upon between the first consul of the French Republic and the emperor. This treaty was concluded at Luneville, in February, 1801. The plenipotentiaries named, were the count Cobentzel and Joseph Buonaparte. It agreed, first, that there was to be a permanent peace between the French republic and the emperor; the Belgic provinces, Falkenstein and its dependencies; the Frickthal, and all that belongs to the house of Austria on the left bank of the Rhine, between Zursack and Basle, to be given up to the French. Istria, Dalmatia, and the Venetian isles dependant on those countries; the Bocca di Cattaro, the city of Venice, the Adriatic sea, and the Adige from its leaving the Tyrol to the mouth of the said sea, to belong to the emperor, the towing-path of the Adige being the line of limitation. Draw-bridges to be established in the middle of the cities of Verona and Porto Legnano, to mark the separation of this line; the Briegau to be given to the duke of Modena; Tuscany and the island of Elba to

be possessed by the infant/duke of Parma; the grand-duke to obtain a full indemnity in Germany for his Italian states; the French to possess all on the left bank of the Rhine, the towing-path of the Rhine to be the limit between the French republic and the Germanic empire, from where the Rhine leaves Switzerland till it enters the Batavian territory. The French republic renounces all possession on the right bank of the Rhine, and restores Dusseldorf, Ehrenbreitstein, Philippsburg, the fort of Cassel, the fort of Kehl, and Old Brisach; these places to remain as they now are, the emperor to give indemnity to the hereditary princes dispossessed on the left bank of the Rhine; which shall be taken from all the empire according to arrangements to be determined on, when the ratification is exchanged; sequestration of property to be taken off on both sides; this treaty to be common to the Batavian, Helvetic, Cisalpine, and Ligurian republics; the said republics to be guaranteed by both parties. There were a few other articles, but of no great consequence, and thus, after a war which lasted for near ten years, this famous treaty ended.

LUTHER, (Martin,) was born November 10, 1483, at Isleben, in Lower Saxony. In 1508, he became lecturer in philosophy at Wittemberg, and, while thus employed, received orders from his superiors to go to Rome, where he had ample opportunity of observing the corruptions of popery. In 1517, pope Leo X. published indulgences to enable him to complete the building of St. Peter's, which measure proved the cause of an incurable breach in the Roman church. Tetzel, the Dominican, who had the sale of these pardons in Germany, behaved so scandalously, that Luther published a thesis, in which he denied the validity of papal indulgences. Tetzel, who was then at Frankfort, caused Luther's thesis to be burnt, and published another in answer to it, which roused the indignation of the students at Wittemberg to such a degree, that they burnt his

thesis in return. Luther, in the midst of these proceedings, wrote to the pope in terms of respect; and though he did not retract his positions, he expressed his readiness to submit to authority. In the mean time, the contention became fiercer between the champions for indulgences, and their opponents. The pope aggravated the matter by citing Luther to Rome; but he wisely declined trusting himself in a place where destruction was certain. He had now secured the protection of the elector of Saxony, who, instead of giving him up, demanded that the cause should be heard in Germany. With this the pope complied, and Cajetan was sent as legate to Augsburg, whither Luther repaired; but, after two conferences, he left the place, from an apprehension of a design upon his life. In 1519 was held a conference at Leipsic, between Luther and Eckius, professor of divinity at Ingolstadt, which ended without bringing the parties nearer to each other. The pope, on his side, became exasperated, and issued his bull of excommunication against the reformer, who caused it to be publicly burnt in the presence of the whole university of Wittemberg. On his way home from the diet of Worms, in 1521, he was carried off by a party of horsemen to one of the castles belonging to his friend, the elector, who adopted this method to secure him from his enemies. In this Patmos, as he called it, Luther remained ten months, and then returned to Wittemberg, where he published a sharp reply to Henry VIII., who had written a book against him, on the seven sacraments. In 1529 the emperor assembled a diet at Spire, to check the progress of the new opinions; and here it was that the name of Protestants first arose, occasioned by the protest made, on the part of the electoral princes, who were for the Reformation, against the rigorous impositions brought forward in this assembly. In 1534 Luther's translation of the whole Bible was published; and the same year he printed a book against the service of the mass.

At length, worn out, more by labour than age, this illustrious man died at his native place, February 18, 1546, and his remains were solemnly interred in the cathedral of Wittemberg.

LUTZEN, a small town of Saxony, in the principality of Merseburg. Its neighbourhood has been the scene of two memorable engagements: one in 1632, in which the Austrians were defeated by Gustavus of Sweden, who was himself killed in the action; and the other in 1813, when the French, under Bonaparte, defeated the combined forces of Prussia and Russia. Of this last memorable battle the details are as follow:—After the distress which overwhelmed the French army on their retreat from Moscow, the Russians advanced, and took possession of Konigsberg, Elbing, Marienberg, and Marienwunder. Continuing to advance, they entered Warsaw, after which they marched towards the Oder, for the purpose of engaging with, and dispersing such French troops as might have been collected in and about Posen. An action of some importance there took place, in which the Russians, from the great disparity of the French army, were victorious; and, on the 20th of February, two days after this affair, they occupied Berlin with 19,000 troops. They then proceeded to Hamburg, which they entered on the 28th. The occupation of this capital determined the king of Prussia again to veer about, and to enter into an alliance offensive and defensive with the court of Russia. During this time the genius of the French emperor was on the alert, and by the beginning of April he found himself once more in a situation to cope with the allied armies of Russia and Prussia, bringing into the field an army of nearly 150,000 men. The Russians crossed the Elbe, under generals Domberg and Tschermacheff, and advanced against general Morand at Luneberg, whom, in a very obstinate battle, they overthrew, and the whole of the French force was either killed, wounded, or taken prisoners. The allies, however, enjoyed their

conquest but a short time, for the French sent 10,000 men to retake the town, which they did, putting the Russians to a precipitate flight. Napoleon having joined his army, a partial battle took place, on the 1st of May, at Weissenfels, in which the duke of Istria was killed, and the French advanced upon Lutzen. The emperor Alexander, and the king of Prussia, learning that the French army had debouched from Thuringia, adopted the plan of giving battle in the plains of Lutzen, and put themselves in motion to occupy that position: but they were anticipated by the rapidity of the movements of the French army; they, however, persisted in their projects, and resolved to drive the French army from the position it had taken. The allies debouched and passed the Elster, at the bridges of Zwenkau, Pegau, and Zeitz. At nine in the morning, on the 3d of May, Napoleon heard a cannonade from the side nearest Leipzig. The allies defended the small village of Tastenau, and the bridges in advance of Leipzig. The French emperor now waited the moment when these last positions should be carried, to put in motion all his army in that direction, make it pivot on Leipzig, pass to the right bank of the Elster, and take the allies a reverse; but at ten o'clock, the allies debouched towards Kara, upon several columns extremely deep; their numbers appeared immense. The battle now became brisk. The allies, who appeared certain of success, marched to reach the right of the French, and gain the road of Weissenfels; but in this they were disappointed, and the field-of-battle was soon covered with the best of the enemy's cavalry. The great efforts of infantry, cavalry and artillery, were directed against the centre. The village of Kara was taken and retaken several times. The battle embraced a line of two leagues, covered with fire, smoke, and a cloud of dust. The allies having thrown their principal force upon the French centre, it gave way; but general Drouet, with a battery of eighty pieces of artillery, opened a dreadful fire upon the allies;

they now gave way on all sides. The duke of Treviso obtained possession of the village of Kara, overthrew the allies, and continued to advance, beating the charge. The cavalry, infantry, and artillery of the allies now retreated on all sides, and were pursued by the French for near a league and a half, and soon arrived at the heights which had been occupied by the emperor Alexander, the king of Prussia, and the family of Brandenburg, during the battle, and made several thousand prisoners.

LUXEMBURG, a considerable town of the Netherlands, capital of the grand duchy of the same name. In 1794 it was besieged by the victorious armies of France, and capitulated on the 17th of June, 1795. It was finally lost by France in 1814, and is now a part of the kingdom of the Netherlands.

LYCIANS, (the,) once a very powerful and warlike people, and highly commended for their temperance, and mode of administering justice. They were first subdued by Croesus, and afterwards by Cyrus. The natives of Xanthus attacked, with a handful of men, the numerous and victorious army of the Persians; but, finding themselves overpowered by numbers, they retired into their city, and, having set fire to the castle, in which were their families and riches, they returned to the engagement, and were all cut to pieces.

LYCURGUS, a celebrated lawgiver of Sparta, son of king Eunomus, and brother to Polydeces. He travelled like a philosopher, and visited Asia and Egypt without suffering himself to be corrupted by the licentiousness and luxury which prevailed there. The confusion which followed his departure from Sparta, now had made his presence totally necessary, and he returned home at the earnest solicitations of his countrymen. The disorders which reigned at Sparta induced him to reform the government. Lycurgus found no difficulty in reforming the abuses of the state, and all

were equally anxious in promoting a revolution which had received the sanction of heaven. This happened 684 years before the Christian era. Lycurgus first established a senate, which was composed of twenty-eight senators, whose authority preserved the tranquillity of the state, and maintained a due and just equilibrium between the kings and the people, by watching over the intrusions of the former, and checking the seditious convulsions of the latter. All distinctions were destroyed, and by making an equal and impartial division of the land among the members of the commonwealth, Lycurgus banished luxury, and encouraged the useful arts. The use of money, either of gold or silver, was totally forbidden, and the introduction of heavy brass and iron coin, brought no temptations to the dishonest, and left every individual in the possession of his effects without any fears of robbery or violence. All the citizens dined in common, and no one had greater claims to indulgence or luxury than another. The intercourse of Sparta with other nations was forbidden, and few were permitted to travel. The youths were entrusted to the public master, as soon as they had attained their seventh year, and their education was left to the wisdom of the laws. They were taught early to think, to answer in a short and laconic manner, and to excel in sharp repartee. They were instructed and encouraged to carry things by surprise, but if ever the theft was discovered, they were subjected to a severe punishment. These laws gave rise to a set of men distinguished for their intrepidity, their fortitude, and their magnanimity. After this, Lycurgus retired from Sparta, to Delphi, or according to others, to Crete; and, before his departure he bound all the citizens of Lacedæmon by a solemn oath, that neither they nor their posterity would alter, violate, or abolish the laws which he had established, before his return. He soon after put himself to death, and he ordered his ashes to be

thrown into the sea, fearful lest if they were carried to Sparta, the citizens would call themselves freed from the oath which they had taken, and empowered to make a revolution. The wisdom and the good effect of the laws of Lycurgus have been firmly demonstrated at Sparta, where for 700 years they remained in full force, but the legislator has been censured as cruel and impolitic. Lycurgus has been compared to Solon, the celebrated legislator of Athens, and it has been judiciously observed, that the former gave his citizens morals conformable to the laws which he had established, and that the latter had given the Athenians laws, which coincided with their customs and manners. The office of Lycurgus demanded resolution, and he shewed himself inexorable and severe. In Solon artifice was requisite, and he shewed himself mild and even voluptuous. The moderation of Lycurgus is greatly commended, particularly when we recollect that he treated with the greatest humanity and confidence Alcander, a youth who had put out one of his eyes in a seditious tumult. The laws of Lycurgus were abrogated by Philipomen, B. C. 188, but only for a little time, as they were soon after re-established by the Romans.

LYDIA, a celebrated kingdom of Asia Minor, whose boundaries were different at different times. It was anciently called Mæonia, and received the name of Lydia from Lydus, one of its kings. It was governed by monarchs, who, after the fabulous ages, reigned 349 years, in the following order: Ardysus began to reign 797 B. C.; Alyattes, 761; Meles, 747; Candaules, 735; Gyges, 718; Ardysus II. 680; Sadyattes, 631; Alyattes II. 619, and Cræsus, 562, who was conquered by Cyrus, B. C. 548, when the kingdom became a province of the Persian empire. There were three different races that reigned in Lydia, the Attyadæ, Heraclidæ, and Mermnadæ. The history of the first is obscure and fabulous; the Heraclidæ began to reign about

the Trojan war, and the crown remained in their family for about 505 years, and was always transmitted from father to son. Canaules was the last of the Heraclidæ; and Gyges the first, and Croesus the last, of the Merminadæ. The Lydians were great warriors in the reign of the Merminadæ. They invented the art of coining gold and silver, and were the first who exhibited public sports, &c. It remained a part of the eastern Roman empire till 1326, when it was conquered by the Turks.

LYONS, a large city in the south-east of France. This city sustained a siege against the republicans for several months, and after its surrender the principal inhabitants were murdered by Collot D'Herbois. In the spring of 1814, several severe actions took place in this neighbourhood, between the French and Austrians; on the return of Napoleon from Elba, in March, 1815, he was received with acclamation.

LYSANDER, a celebrated general of Sparta, in the last years of the Peloponnesian war. He drew Ephesus from the interest of Athens, and gained the friendship of Cyrus the younger. He gave battle to the Athenian fleet, consisting of 120 ships, at Ægospotamos, and destroyed it all, except three ships, with which the enemy's general fled to Evagoras king of Cyprus. In this celebrated battle, which happened 405 years B. C., the Athenians lost 3000 men, and with them their empire and influence among the neighbouring states. Lysander well knew how to take advantage of his victory, and the following year Athens, worn out by a long war of twenty-seven years, and discouraged by its misfortunes, gave itself up to the power of the enemy, and consented to destroy the Piræus, to

deliver up all its ships, except twelve, to recall all those who had been banished, and, in short, to be submissive in every degree to the power of Lacedæmon. Besides these humiliating conditions, the government of Athens was totally changed, and thirty tyrants were set over it by Lysander. This glorious success, and the honour of having put an end to the Peloponnesian war, increased the pride of Lysander. He had already begun to pave his way to universal power, by establishing aristocracy in the Grecian cities of Asia, and now he attempted to make the crown of Sparta elective. The sudden declaration of war against the Thebans saved him from the accusations of his adversaries, and he was sent, together with Pausanius, against the enemy. The plans of his military operations were discovered, and the Haliartians, whose ruin he secretly meditated, attacked him unexpectedly, and he was killed in a bloody battle, which ended in the defeat of his troops, 394 years B. C.

LYSIMACHUS, a son of Agathocles, who was among the generals of Alexander. He sided with Cassander and Seleucus against Antigonus and Demetrius, and fought with them at the celebrated battle of Ipsus. He afterwards seized Macedonia, after expelling Pyrrhus from the throne, B. C. 286, but his cruelty rendered him odious, and the murder of his son Agathocles so offended his subjects, that the most opulent and powerful revolted from him and abandoned the kingdom. He pursued them to Asia, and declared war against Seleucus, who had given them a kind reception. He was killed in a bloody battle, 281 years B. C. in the eightieth year of his age.

M.

MACARTNEY, (George, Earl) celebrated in diplomatic history principally from his unsuccessful embassy to China, in 1792. He died in 1806.

MACBETH, a usurper and tyrant of Scotland in the 11th century. He murdered his kinsman Duncan, and then seized upon the throne. He also put to death Mac Gill and Banquo, the most powerful men in his dominions; Macduff next becoming the object of his suspicions, he escaped into England, but the inhuman tyrant wreaked his vengeance on his wife and children, whom he caused to be butchered. Macduff, and Malcolm, son of Duncan, having obtained assistance from the English, entered into Scotland, and forced Macbeth to retreat into the highlands, where he soon afterwards was slain in battle by Macduff.

MACCABEES. Several princes of this name, who displayed great courage in the defence of their country, particularly Judas and Simon Maccabæus. Their family became kings of Judea, until it was conquered by the Romans.

MACEDONIA. This kingdom was founded by Caranus and Perdiccas, B. C. 800. Under Philip and Alexander the Great it became considerable; subdued its neighbours, and destroyed the liberties of the Greeks, 338. and of the Persian empire, 336. Macedonia continued in the family of Alexander, or under some of his generals, till 168, B. C.; when, by the defeat of Perseus, it became a Roman province; and so continued till 1393, when the Turks under Bajazet IV. invaded Macedonia, which was finally conquered by them in 1429.

MACRINUS (Marcus Optilius Severus), a native of Africa, who rose from the meanest station to be emperor, on the death of Caracalla, in 217. The beginning of his reign was popular, but at last his soldiers mutinied, and he fled in disguise to Cappadocia, where he was taken and beheaded, A. D. 218.

MACRINUS (Titus Fulvius Julianus), an Egyptian, who, from being a private soldier, rose to the rank of general, and on the capture of Valerian by the Persians in 256, assumed the Imperial title. He maintained the war with great success against the Persians, but marching into the west to dethrone Gallianus, was defeated and put to death with his son, A. D. 262.

MADOG, the son of Owain Gwynedd, a Welsh prince, who is said to have gone to sea in ten ships with three hundred men, in 1170, after which, no tidings were ever heard of him. It is supposed that Madog reached the American continent, as, it is said, there is a tribe of white Indians on the northern branches of the Missouri river, who speak the Welsh language.

MÆCENAS (Calvus Cilius), 'the intimate friend of Augustus, and so great a patron of men of letters, that his name has been proverbialized to characterize persons of the same disposition. According to Horace, he was descended from the kings of Etruria. Augustus one day being on the tribunal, passing sentence of death on several persons, Mæcenas sent him a paper with this inscription, "Come down, butcher;" which struck the emperor so forcibly, that he immediately descended from his seat. He was the great friend of Virgil and Horace, who immortalized him in their works. He distinguished himself also in the field, particularly at the battles of Modena and Philippi. When Augustus and Agrippa went to Sicily, Mæcenas had the administration of the government, though he was not a man of ambition. He died eight years B. C.

MAGELLAN (Ferdinand), a famous Portuguese navigator. In 1510 he served under Albuquerque, and distinguished himself by his bravery, and by his exact knowledge of the Indian seas. On his return to Portugal he entered into the service of the emperor Charles V., who gave

HISTORY.

him the command of a fleet, with which, in 1519, he discovered the straits called by his name at the extremity of South America, after which, he took possession of the Philippine islands, in the name of the king of Spain. He was slain at these islands in a skirmish with the natives in 1521.

MAGNA CHARTA, a concession extorted from King John by the barons at Runnemeade, June 15th, 1215, which laid the foundation of the public rights of the people of England.

MAGNENTIUS, a German, who from being a private soldier rose to the first employments in the empire. The emperor Constant had a great esteem for him, and in a mutiny among the troops delivered him from the fury of the soldiers by covering him with his robe. Magnentius, however, murdered his benefactor in 350, and assumed the title of Emperor; but Constantius II. avenged the death of his brother, took Magnentius prisoner, and put him to death at Lyons in 353.

MAGNESIA, a city of Asia Minor, now called Gümüshisar. It is celebrated for the death of Themistocles, and for a battle which was fought there 187 years B. C., between the Romans and Antiochus king of Syria. The forces of Antiochus amounted to 70,000 men, according to Appian, or 79,000 foot and 12,000 horse, according to Livy. The Roman army consisted of about 29 or 30,000 men, 2000 of which were employed in guarding the camp. The Syrians lost 50,000 foot and 4000 horse, and the Romans only 300 killed with 25 horse.

MAGNUS, the name of two kings of Sweden, who reigned at the end of the 13th and beginning of the 14th centuries, and conceded many rights to the people.

MAGNUS, the name of seven kings of Norway in the 11th and 12th centuries, the last of whom ceded the Hebrides to Scotland in 1606.

MAGO, a Carthaginian general sent against Dionysius, king of Sicily. He obtained a victory, and granted peace to the conquered. In a battle which soon after followed this treaty of peace, Mago was killed.

His son, of the same name, succeeded to the command of the Carthaginian army; but he disgraced himself by flying at the approach of Timoleon, who had come to assist the Syracusans. He was accused in the Carthaginian senate, and he prevented by suicide the execution of the sentence against him.

MAGO, a brother of Annibal the Great. He was present at the battle of Cannæ, and was deputed by his brother to carry to Carthage the news of the celebrated victory. His arrival at Carthage was unexpected; and more powerfully to astonish his countrymen on account of the victory of Cannæ, he emptied in the senate-house the three bushels of golden rings which had been taken from the Roman knights slain in battle. He was afterwards sent to Spain, where he defeated the two Scipios, but was himself, in another engagement, totally ruined. He retired to the Balears, which he conquered; and one of the cities there still bears his name, and is called Portus Magonis, Port Mahon. After this he landed in Italy with an army, and took possession of part of Insubria. He was defeated in a battle by Quintilius Varus, and died of a mortal wound 203 B. C.

MAHERBAL, a Carthaginian, who was at the siege of Saguntum, and who commanded the cavalry of Annibal at the battle of Cannæ. He advised the conqueror immediately to march to Rome, but Annibal required time to consider on so bold a measure; upon which Maherbai observed, that Annibal knew how to conquer, but not how to make a proper use of victory.

MAHMUD I., raised from a dungeon to the throne in 1731; made the peace of Belgrade, 1739, by which he kept Belgrade, Servia, and Wallachia, and obtained Asof.

MAHMUD II. present emperor of the Turks, began his reign in 1808, and has been engaged in a bloody war with the Greeks, and in another with the Persians.

MAHOMET, or **MOHAMMED**, a famous impostor, was born in 570, at Mecca, a city of Arabia, of the noble family of Koreish. Losing his father in his infancy, his guardianship devolved on his uncle Abu

Taleb, who employed him to accompany his caravans from Mecca to Damascus. In this employment of camel-driver he continued till he was twenty-eight years of age, when he married Cadiga, a rich widow. Becoming hereby one of the wealthiest men in Mecca, he formed the design of obtaining the sovereignty; and judging there was no way so likely to gain his end as by effecting a change in the religion of his countrymen, he adopted that as his instrument. He now spent much of his time alone in a cave near Mecca, employed in meditation and prayer, though it is said that in reality he called to his aid a Persian Jew, well versed in the history and laws of his persuasion, and two Christians, one of the Jacobite and the other of the Nestorian sect. With the help of these men he framed his *Koran*, or the book which he pretended to have received at different times from heaven by the hands of the angel Gabriel. At the age of forty he publicly assumed the prophetic character, calling himself the Apostle of God. His disciples were at first very few, consisting only of his wife and brothers, but in the course of three years he had greatly increased the number of his followers. On these he imposed tales, but too well adapted to deceive ignorant and superstitious minds. He pretended to have passed into the highest heavens in one night, on the back of a beautiful ass called Al Borak, and accompanied by the angel Gabriel: that he there had an interview with Adam, Abraham, Moses, David, and Jesus Christ, who acknowledged his superiority, which was confirmed to him by the Deity himself. This romance staggered even some of his best friends, and a powerful confederacy being formed against him, he was forced to quit Mecca, and to seek a refuge in Medina. This expulsion dates the foundation of his empire, and of his religion. The Mohammedans adopt it as their chronological standard, calling it the *Hegira*, that is, the *Flight* or *Persecution*, being the first day of our July, A. D. 622. Mahomet had still a number of disciples, upon these he inculcated the principle, that they were not to dispute for their religion by words but

by the sword. No doctrine could possibly be better suited to a lawless and wandering people; it was soon carried into practice, and the Jewish Arabs were the first who experienced its effects. Upon them Mahomet committed the most shocking cruelties, numbers were put to death, others sold for slaves, and their goods distributed among the soldiers. A faith, thus propagated, could not but succeed in a country like Arabia. His adherents were not only rewarded by plunder here, but had held out to them a felicity of the most sensual kind hereafter. In 627 he made a treaty with the inhabitants of Mecca, which within two years he violated, and stormed the place with fire and sword. Having made himself master of Arabia, he extended his conquests into Syria, where he took several cities, and laid some of the princes under tribute. His career was stopped only by his death, which was supposed to be occasioned by poison, administered him by a Jewess. When the woman was examined, she declared she had perpetrated the deed on purpose to try whether he was really a true prophet. An answer somewhat remarkable, as the innocuousness of poison was one of the privileges promised by our Lord to his disciples. He died, A. D. 632, and of the Hegira 8, aged 62. After the death of Cadiga he had several wives and concubines, by whom he had many children, but left only a daughter named Fatima, who married his successor Ali, having lived to see his doctrines and his power extended over Arabia, Syria, and Persia.

MAHOMET I. Emperor of the Turks, was the son of Bajazet I., and succeeded his brother Moses in 1413. He re-established the glory of the Ottoman empire, which had been ravaged by Tamerlane, and fixed the seat of government at Adrianople, where he died in 1421, aged 47.

MAHOMET II. was born at Adrianople in 1430, and succeeded his father Amurath II. in 1451. He made many conquests, took Constantinople by storm, 29th of May, 1453, thereby putting an end to the Greek empire, and was the first who assumed the title of grand signor. His death, in 1481, occasioned public rejoicings at Rome and Italy.

MAHOMET III. succeeded his father, Amurath III. in 1595. He commenced his reign by strangling nineteen of his brothers, and drowning ten of his father's wives. He entered Hungary, took Agria by capitulation, and massacred the whole garrison. He also defeated the Imperialists under the Archduke Charles, but being afterwards less successful, was obliged to sue for peace to the christian princes, whose states he had ravaged. He died in 1603.

MAHOMET IV. was born in 1642. He became emperor in 1649, after the tragical death of his father, Ibrahim I. He marched in person against Poland, and having taken several places, made peace with that country, on condition of receiving an annual tribute. Sobieski, however, defeated him near Choczim, and obtained so many other advantages, that a peace was concluded favourable to Poland in 1676. The Janissaries, attributing this and other misfortunes to the indolence of the sultan, deposed him in 1687, and sent him to prison, where he died in 1691.

MAHRATTAS, a powerful nation of mountaineers in India, who have maintained a series of wars with the British and native powers, latterly led on by a chief, named Holkar, with whom a peace was made in Dec. 1805; since which, they have been held in check by the Marquis of Hastings, and Poona, their capital, was taken in 1817.

MAIDA, a place in Calabria in Italy, where the British troops under Sir John Stuart, defeated the French troops under General Regulier in 1806.

MAILLEBOIS (John Baptist Desmarets, Marquis of), a French general, reduced Corsica to the dominion of France, and served with reputation in Germany; but in 1746 was defeated at the battle of Placencia. He died in 1762, aged 80.

MAINE, one of the united states of North America, bounded by New Brunswick, New Hampshire, and the Atlantic. The French attempted to settle in it in 1604, and the English in 1607, but no effectual settlement was made till 1635, when the Plymouth Company made a grant to Sir Ferdinand Gorges of a square of 120 miles. A charter was granted in 1639. It was subsequently included in Massachu-

setts, and in 1675 almost all the settlements in Maine were destroyed by the Indians, whose hostilities continued, with short intervals, till 1748. It continued to form part of Massachusetts till 1820, when it was declared an independent state, and a member of the federal union. Its government consists of the legislative power in a senate and representatives chosen annually, in an executive governor and council of seven, and of a supreme court of justice.

MAINFROY, Prince of Tarento, natural son of the Emperor Frederic II, constituted by Conrad IV. guardian of his sons, caused himself to be crowned at Palermo. He quarrelled with Pope Innocent IV., invaded the ecclesiastical estates, and laid siege to Rome. The pope excommunicated him, and gave his kingdoms of Naples and Sicily to Charles of Anjou. A war ensued, and Mainfroy was slain on the plains of Benevento, in 1266.

MAINTENON (Frances D'Aubigné, marchioness de), whose name, notwithstanding its disgraceful connexions, mixes very much with the history of the period, was the granddaughter of Theodore Agrippa D'Aubigné, and born in 1635 in the prison of Niort, where her father was confined. On his death, Frances was sent to France, being patronised by her paternal aunt, Madame de Villette. From her, however, she was removed by an order of court, lest she should be brought up a Protestant. In 1651 she married the celebrated Scarron, from whom she learned the Latin, Spanish, and Italian languages. On his death, being in straitened circumstances, she accepted a pension from the queen, which was renewed to her after the death of that princess, through the favour of Madame de Montespan; and undertook the education of Louis's children by that lady. In this situation she acquired the esteem of the king, who in 1674 purchased for her the estate of Maintenon, which name she assumed. In 1685, the king, over whom she had a complete ascendancy, made her his wife; but the marriage was never publicly avowed. She has been accused of moving him to revoke the edict of Nantes; but this is improbable, as it

is certain she exerted all her influence in behalf of the suffering Protestants. Her better actions deserve, beyond all doubt, much of the notice which has been given to the meaner part of her story. She exhibited all the characteristics of a woman striving to be great beyond the sphere of her sex, and the usual inconsistencies of famous women were very conspicuous in her: yet many of her acts were undoubtedly great. The royal institution of St. Louis, for the young and indigent female nobility, was founded by Madame de Maintenon, and liberally endowed by the king. This was afterwards called the society of St. Cyr, and was distinguished by many excellent regulations. To her influence has been attributed the settlement of that peace so salutary to the French affairs, after the destructive effects of the seven years' war, carried against all the ambitious designs and mortified impatience of the French generals. For a considerable time she lived on terms of intimacy with Fenelon, and on his recommendation patronised Madame Guyon; but afterwards she joined the persecutors of that excellent man. On the death of Louis she retired to St. Cyr, where she died in 1718.

MAJORIANUS (Julius Valerius), Emperor of the West; was raised to the throne in 457. He was of a good family, and his virtues rendered him deserving of his elevation. He made war against the Vandals with success, and concluded an advantageous peace with them. He was murdered by Ricimer, one of his generals, in 461.

MALESHERBES (Christian William Lamolignon), an eminent French counsellor, was born at Paris in 1721. In 1775 he was made minister of state for the interior. Under his administration numerous abuses were removed; but the year following he resigned, and travelled into different countries, in a plain attire, and under an assumed name. Of the revolution, he conceived a hope that it would be productive of good; yet he voluntarily pleaded the cause of Louis XVI, and defended him with all the ardour of conscious rectitude. He was condemned to death, with his daughter and grand-daughter, by the revolutionary tribunal, April 22, 1793.

MALPLAQUET (Battle of). This ever-memorable battle, wherein the action was the hottest of any during the whole war, was fought on the 11th of September, 1709. Of the allied troops, altogether amounting to almost 120,000 men, two armies had been formed: one commanded by the Duke of Marlborough, and the other by Prince Eugene, of Savoy. They were found to consist of 168 battalions and 270 squadrons. The French troops were, for the most part, new-raised men, ill clothed and ill mounted, but in great numbers. To reinforce their army in Flanders, they had drawn 15,000 men from Germany; these, and others from the Moselle, &c., made their troops amount to 150 battalions and 300 squadrons. Marshal Villars was commander-in-chief; Marshal Bouffiers had been sent to assist him at the battle but without encroaching upon his authority. The manner in which the French were posted may be thus described. Their right wing was covered by the wood of Laniers on one side, and by that of Jansart on the other. The latter had behind it thick hedges, with three ditches and artificial intrenchments one behind another; the access also was difficult, because of a marshy ground which lay before them. Against this wing the Dutch infantry were to make their attack. Their centre took up all the open space between the wood of Jansart and that of Sart. A hamlet towards the middle covered the depth of this centre, which was also defended by a line extending from one wood to the other. Their left wing was posted, partly in the wood of Sart and partly behind, in the plain; the wood served as a natural covert, besides which they had felled trees, and raised banks of earth and fascines, fortified with cannon. In the lines of their centre were openings, to let their cavalry advance. Their artillery was posted on advantageous eminences, and they had nothing in their camp to encumber them. The signal for the attack was given, by the discharge of 50 pieces of cannon. Prince Eugene then advanced with his right, to penetrate into the wood of Sart. In the charges of this wing, General Shulemburg, the Duke of Argyle, and other gene-

HISTORY.

rales, led on 84 battalions, and Count Loweeem 22 other battalions, to attack the intrenchments in the woods of Sart and Taisniere. General Withers also, with 19 battalions, attacked the enemy in another intrenchment beyond the woods of Taisniere and Great Blagniere. The design in both succeeded: the fight, however, was long and obstinate, the enemy defending themselves with equal vigour. The allies were repulsed more than once, but notwithstanding the barricadoes of felled trees and other impediments, the action wavering almost two hours, they saw themselves at last masters of the wood, and had penetrated so far that they could see the hind part of the intrenchments of the enemy's centre. The attack of the left wing did not begin till half an hour after that of the right, but it lasted longer, and was much more bloody. Thirty battalions, sustained by 15 others, Prussians, Hanoverians, or Hessians, engaged with above 70. These thirty battalions were commanded by Prince Friso of Nassau, general of the foot, and by Baron Pagel. Following his example, the troops of his attack advanced as far as the third intrenchment. But these they could not force, as the enemy were well seconded by fresh battalions drawn from their centre. The assailants were even driven back to their own post. Nevertheless the prince led on his troops a second time, to attack those intrenchments which he had once gained and lost again. They recovered the two first, but the third still remained impregnable. When the enemy's left retired, the Duke directed the Earl of Orkney, with 15 battalions, to attack and post himself in the intrenchments in the plain between the woods of Sart and Jansart. This was executed, and it gave the horse an opportunity to enter them, and advance into the plain. The first squadrons, led by the Prince of Hesse and the Prince D'Auvergne, were put into disorder by the household troops, but rallied, under the fire of those battalions. Advantages and disadvantages succeeded alternately six times, till the Prince of Hesse turning to the left, fell upon the rear of the infantry that had been engaged with the Prince of

Nassau. This was the decisive stroke. On the sight of the diversion made by the Prince of Hesse, the Dutch battalions recovered new strength, broke through the third and last intrenchment, and drove all opposition before them. In general, the French made their retreat in good order; but three regiments of Danish cavalry made a terrible slaughter among several battalions of their right that had been surrounded. The allies pursued as far as the village of Quievrain; the enemy lost 16 of their cannon, 20 colours, 26 standards, and left other indisputable marks of victory, including a number of prisoners. Many were taken next morning in Bavay and the neighbouring places, weariness or their wounds not permitting them to follow their array.

MALTA, a small island in the Mediterranean, important in its possessions, and the strength of the fortifications of its chief city Valletta. It was given by Charles V. to the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem, to serve as a barrier of christendom to the Turks. It suffered a siege in 1565, one of the most desperate and bloody in history, in which the Turks lost nearly 100,000 men. In 1798, it was surrendered to Bonaparte, on his way to Egypt; and in 1800 surrendered to the English after an eighteen-months' blockade, and by whom it is still retained; but in a miserable condition.

MAMELUKES, the body-guard of the Saracen emperor, Adel Sief-uddin, formed in 1214, from Georgian and Circassian slaves, who, in 1280, disposed of the throne; and expelled the Christians from Palestine in 1291. They remained a military body in Egypt, till the year 1810, and their chiefs were treacherously destroyed by Mohammed Ali in 1811.

MAMMEA (Julia), was the daughter of Julius Avitus, and mother of the Emperor Alexander Severus, to whom she gave an excellent education. In his minority she governed with great judgment, banished flatterers, and filled the public stations with men of merit. She embraced the Christian religion, and patronised Origen; but she is charged with being cruel and avaricious. She

was murdered with her son at Mayence, in an insurrection of the soldiers in 235.

MANFRED, king of Naples in 1258, expelled by Charles of Anjou, and died in 1266.

MANLIUS CAPITOLINUS (Marcus), a celebrated Roman consul and commander; who, when Rome was taken by the Gauls, retired into the capitol and preserved it from a sudden attack made upon it in the night. The dogs which were kept in the capitol made no noise; but the geese, by their cry, awoke Manlius, who had just time to repel the enemy. Geese from that period were always held sacred among the Romans, and Manlius was honoured with the surname of Capitolinus. He afterwards endeavoured to subvert the liberties of his country, and was thrown down the Tarpeian rock, 369, B. C.

MANLIUS TORQUATUS, a famous Roman, who displayed great courage in his youth as military tribune. In a war against the Gauls he accepted a challenge given by one of the enemy; and having slain him, took his collar from his neck, on which account he assumed the name of Torquatus. He was the first Roman advanced to the dictatorship without being previously a consul. But he tarnished his glory by putting his son to death, for defeating the enemy without having received orders to attack them. This gave great disgust to the Romans; and on account of his severity in his government, all edicts of extreme rigour were called *Manliana Edicta*. He flourished B. C. 340.

MANSFELD (Peter Ernest Count de), a German statesman and commander. He was made prisoner in 1552 at Ivoy, which place he governed. He afterwards became governor of Luxemburg, where he maintained tranquillity, while the rest of the Low Countries was in a state of civil war. He had afterwards the entire command of Brabant. He died in 1604, aged 67.

MANTINEA (Battle of), in 363, B. C. between the Thebans and the Lacedæmonians, in which Epaminondas was killed, and the power of the Thebans ruined.

MANUEL (Comnenus), Emperor 331

of the East, was the son of John Comnenus and born in 1120. He was crowned in 1143 to the prejudice of Isaac his eldest brother, whom his father had disinherited. Roger, king of Sicily, invaded the empire in his reign, but Manuel expelled him, and then turned his arms against Dalmatia and Hungary, with various success. He also marched into Egypt, which country he would probably have conquered, had he not been betrayed by Amaury, king of Jerusalem, his ally. He died in 1180.

MANUEL II. (Palaologus), Emperor of Constantinople, was the son and successor of John I. The Turks having invaded his dominions, he applied to the Latins for succour, but without effect, on which he, in 1399, resigned his sceptre to John VII., his son, and took a religious habit. He was restored in 1402, and died in 1425.

MAN-TCHU Tartars, a tribe of that extended people, who, exasperated by the murder of their king, made an irruption into China in 1616, and in 1644 took Pekin; when the emperor, putting himself to death, they took possession of China as a conquered country, and established the Tsing dynasty in the following emperors: Shün-tchi, who reigned from 1644 to 1661; Kang-hi, 1661 to 1722; Yong-tching, 1722 to 1735; Kien Long, 1735 to 1799; and Kiating, the reigning emperor. Their sovereignty is acknowledged in China, Man-tchu Tartary, Bucaria, Tibet, Cochin China, Tonquin, and Korea.

MARAT (Jean Paul), distinguished himself by his writings, and as a member of the Convention, in forwarding the French revolution. He was of the Mountain party, and deeply implicated in their sanguinary actions. He was assassinated in 1793.

MARATHON (Battle of), in 490. B. C., in which Miltiades, and a small army of Athenians, totally defeated the numerous army sent by Darius, King of Persia, to conquer Greece.

MARCELLUS I. Pope, banished from Rome by the Emperor Maxentius for excommunicating an apostate. He died in 340.

MARCIA, the wife of Regulus, When she heard that her husband

had been put to death at Carthage in the most execrating manner, she retorted the punishment, and shut up some Carthaginian prisoners in a barrel, which she had previously filled with sharp nails. The senate was obliged to stop the wantonness of her cruelty.

M. MARCIUS SABINUS, was the progenitor of the Marcian family at Rome. He came to Rome with Numa, and it was he who advised Numa to accept of the crown which the Romans offered to him. He attempted to make himself king of Rome, in opposition to Tullus Hostilius, and when his efforts proved unsuccessful he killed himself.

MARCOMANNI, a people of Germany, who originally dwelt on the banks of the Rhine and the Danube. They proved powerful enemies to the Roman emperors. Augustus granted them peace, but they were afterwards subdued by Antoninus, and Trajan, &c.

MARDONIUS, the son-in-law of Darius, and the general of Xerxes, who intrusted him with the conduct of the war in Greece. He took Athens, but was defeated and slain at the battle of Plataea, B. C., 479.

MARENGO, near Alessandria, in the north of Italy, celebrated for the victory of Bonaparte over the Austrians in 1800. Some details of this most severe conflict, which, perhaps beyond all others, established the military character of Bonaparte, then consul, are well entitled to a place in a dictionary of history. The French head-quarters were removed to Voghera, which the army passed through on its way to Tortona, and took up a position round Tortona to blockade it by divisions; the advance-guard quietly went round the town, and passed without any thing remarkable having taken place. If the Austrian commander was doubtful as to what line of conduct he ought to pursue, this was his time to determine; the possession of Genoa gave him choice either to fight, or shut himself up in the garrison he held; and he should not have forgotten that so long as he held Genoa, his army had a retreat from the port, and to have kept the communication open with that city should have been his chief concern. The French fought for Genoa from

a knowledge of its value, and Bonaparte hastened to derive advantage from the neglect of the Austrians; he ordered the banks of the Po opposite Valenza to be guarded, lest he should escape that way; and the passes between Piedmont and Genoa to be gained. Massena and Suchet were rapidly advancing to annoy the rear of the Austrians, and the consul in his letter to the inferior consuls, does not seem ignorant of the movements in his favour by the army of Italy.—The French army understood that Melas had evacuated Turin, and was advancing to meet them with 60,000 men. General Gardanne retired to take post at Marengo, on the plain of which his great body of cavalry would be of much service.—The consul Bonaparte skirted Marengo, and was seen examining the ground with attention, by turns meditating and giving orders.—The army passed that night at St. Julian's, at the entrance of the plain of Marengo: on the morning of the 14th June, some discharges of cannon roused them from their repose; all was soon in readiness. Gardanne was attacked at seven o'clock; the enemy shewed much vigour of preparation; a few weak points were touched on, but his intentions were unknown till late in the morning. Berthier was first in the field, and wounded soldiers arriving, owned that the Austrians were in force. General Victor's division was drawn up in order of battle. General Laanes' division formed the right wing. The French army was in two lines, and the cavalry supported its wings.—The consul Bonaparte, about 11 o'clock hastened to the field of battle. General Desaix was ordered to support Victor. The Austrians were careful of their position near the bridge, on the Bormida; but the principal point of action was at St. Stefano, from hence they could cut off the retreat of the French, and they gave their attention to this point. The division under Victor began to give way, and many corps of cavalry and infantry were drove back. The firing came nearer, and a sudden and dreadful discharge was heard on the Bormida; the French were soon after seen retreating, car-

rying the wounded on their shoulders, and the Austrians gained upon them.—Bonaparte advanced, and urged all he met with; his presence encouraged them; his own guards no longer continued about his person, but near him shared in the battle.—The grenadiers of the consular guard advanced against the enemy: although they were only about 500 men, they still advanced, and forced every thing in their passage; they were three times charged by the enemies' cavalry; they surrounded their colours and wounded, and having exhausted all their ammunition, they then slowly fell back, and joined the rear guard.—The army fought retreating in all directions; the Austrians turned the right wing, the garrison of Tortona made a sortie, and the French were thus surrounded. The consul, in the centre, encouraged the gallant corps that defended the defile which crossed the road, shut up on one side by a wood, and on the other by some thick vineyards of lofty growth; the village of Marengo was on the left. Of the French artillery, the few that remained had but little ammunition left. Thirty pieces of cannon, well served by the enemy, cut up the French army. In the midst of this slaughter, the consul appeared to brave death. The ground was ploughed up by the enemies' shot, even between the legs of his horse; but undaunted, and with the greatest coolness, he gave his orders as events required: he was urged to retire, but discovered no change.—Marengo seemed the prize for which both parties contended. Gardanne flanked the corps going to attack it; the Austrians for a moment gave way, but being reinforced, marched on.—General Kellerman, the younger, supported the left; a regiment of dragoons routed a column of Austrian cavalry, but was charged by superior numbers, and was giving way, when two more columns advanced to his assistance, and took 100 prisoners.—The consul being informed that the reserve of General Desaix was not yet arrived, hastened to the division of General Lasnes to slacken its retreat: he tells them it was his practice to sleep on the field of battle.—The enemy, however, advanced; the retreat was absolutely necessary,

which took place in good order, though eighty pieces of cannon were playing on them: this did not annoy the firmness of the French, they manœuvred as though they were on a parade.—At four o'clock in the afternoon, not more than 6000 infantry stood to their colours, and six pieces of cannon only could be made use of; one-third of the army was unable to combat, and more than another third was occupied in removing the sick and wounded, owing to the want of carriages. Every circumstance was eminently discouraging to the French army, but their fortitude and courage changed their situation in the course of two hours afterwards. The divisions of Mounier and Desaix shewed themselves; they arrived on a gallop, after a forced march of ten leagues, anxious to avenge their fallen comrades. The crowd of dead and wounded might well have damped their ardour, but one opinion only reigned among them, and they rushed on to glory.—General Melas, being ignorant of what passed in the French line, and also ignorant of the reinforcements that had timely arrived to their succour, changed that disposition which had given him success, and which it was his interest as well as duty to have followed up. He extended his wings, thinking, by this manœuvre, to have cut the enemy off; but it only brought on his own disaster. Bonaparte, whom nothing escaped, seized on this favourable opportunity, and altered his plan accordingly.—When Desaix reached the heights, the consul, the generals, and the staff went through the ranks inspiring confidence. This took up near an hour, while the Austrian artillery was bearing upon their ranks, and many were thus killed without moving, except to cover their comrades' dead bodies. The signal for charging was at length heard. Desaix, at the head of a light battalion, threw himself upon the Austrians, and charged with the bayonet; all the French were in motion at once, in two lines, their fire carried every thing before it; the enemy were in every position overthrown. The French line now presented a formidable front; as quick as the cannon was brought up, they made dreadful havoc among the affrighted Aus-

trjans; they fell back, and their cavalry charged with fury; a powder waggon blew up, and their alarm increased; in fact, all gave way and fled.—The French cavalry rushed into the plain, and advanced towards the enemy. Desaix trampled on all obstacles which opposed him. Victor carried Marengo, and flew towards the Bormida. The centre, under Murat advanced into the plain; he much annoyed the Austrian centre, and kept a great body of cavalry in check. Desaix cut off the left wing of the Austrians completely, and in the moment of his victory received a mortal wound.—General Kellerman made 6000 prisoners, with two generals and officers of the staff.—Night coming on, the Austrians were all in disorder; all crowded together near the centre, and many were thrown into the river, off the bridge; their artillery intercepted their retreat.—The third line of Austrian cavalry, wishing to save the infantry, came up; a ditch separated the combatants; the French crossed it, and immediately surrounded the two first platoons. The Austrians were thrown into disorder; the pursuit continued, and they made a great many prisoners; the Austrian rear guard was cut to pieces. Night setting in, and the extreme fatigue of the horses, made Murat determine not to expose his troops more after so successful a day's work.—The armies had been fourteen hours within musket-shot of each other, and wanted rest. Victory waved on each side four times during the day, and sixty pieces of cannon were alternately won and lost. When the battle ended, the French had taken 12 standards, 26 pieces of cannon, and 7000 prisoners. The Austrians lost seven generals, 400 officers, and 8000 men killed or wounded. The French lost Generals Desaix and Watrin killed, four generals of brigade wounded, and 3000 men killed, wounded, and prisoners. The French army, when the battle commenced, was reckoned at about 45,000 strong, with about thirty pieces of artillery. The Austrian army was from 55 to 60,000 men, including near 18,000 cavalry, and an immense train of artillery well provided.

MARGARET of Anjou, daughter of Rene, King of Sicily, and wife of

Henry VI., King of England. The Duke of Gloucester having opposed this marriage, she effected his ruin, and he was strangled in prison. In the civil wars between the houses of York and Lancaster she displayed the character of a heroine. Her husband being taken prisoner in 1455 by the Duke of York, she levied forces, defeated the duke, set Henry at liberty, and entered London in triumph. In 1460 her army was defeated at Northampton by the Earl of Warwick, and Henry again became a prisoner. The queen, however, escaped, and gathered another army, with which she marched against the Duke of York, who fell in the battle of Wakefield. She next defeated Warwick at St. Alban's; but was routed, after a bloody contest, at Tewkesbury: on which she fled to France to implore succour from Louis XI., who refused her any assistance. This intrepid woman then returned to England, where she was joined by several of her party, but was defeated at Hexham. In 1471 she was taken prisoner; and in 1475 she purchased her liberty by a large ransom. She then returned to France, where she died in 1482, aged 59.

MARGARET, queen of Denmark and Norway, commonly called the Semiramis of the north. She vanquished Albert at Falkoping in 1380, and died in 1412.

MARIA ANTOINETTE, Queen of France and Archduchess of Austria, was the daughter of the Emperor Francis I. and of Maria Theresa. She was born at Vienna in 1755, and married to the Dauphin of France, afterwards Louis XVI., in 1770. At the celebration of the ceremony on the 16th of May two tremendous thunder-storms happened; and at the fête given by the city of Paris on the 30th of the same month above 1,200 persons perished by the falling of a building erected for the letting off fire-works; and a great number of spectators, who were on the pont-royal, fell into the Seine, and were drowned. The dauphiness, on that melancholy occasion, sent all the money she possessed to the lieutenant of police for the relief of the distressed. A number of other benevolent actions of this amiable princess are also recorded, and some

have been made the subject of beautiful pictures. At the death of a monarch in France, it was the custom for the people to pay a tax to the new queen; this she caused to be dispensed with when, by the demise of Louis XV., she ascended the throne. In the great frost of 1783 she displayed the tenderest sensibility for the calamities of the people, and distributed all the money she could raise to supply their wants. In the revolution, which commenced the following year, the public fury was directed against her; but she supported herself amidst its scenes and threatenings with unshaken fortitude. On the famous 6th of October, when the royal family were conveyed from Versailles to Paris, and dreadful exclamations were uttered against the queen, she presented herself before them alone, when her intrepid air disarmed the people, and turned their menaces into applause. The courage of the queen, after being arrested at Varennes, and conducted back to the Tuilleries, was calm and heroic. In the Temple her behaviour was still greater. July 4, 1793, she was separated from her son, which excited in her the most affecting sensations. The 8th of August she was conducted, in the night, to the Conciergerie, where she was confined in a dark and damp dungeon. In October she was brought to trial, on the charge of having embezzled the public property, corresponded with foreign enemies, and transmitted large sums to the emperor. Accusations of crimes the most unnatural were also produced; to which she opposed a spirit and resolution of conscious innocence. Though nothing was proved, sentence of condemnation was passed against her, which she heard in triumph. On the 16th she was conducted in a cart to the scaffold, where, after elevating her eyes to Heaven, she suffered the fatal stroke, aged 38 years and some months. Her body was thrown into a grave, and consumed by quick lime.

MARIAMNE, the wife of Herod the Great, by whom she had two sons, Alexander and Aristobulus, and two daughters. Herod was very fond of Mariamne; but she had little regard for him, especially after he put

to death her brother Aristobulus. When Herod went to Rome to court the favour of Augustus, he left secret orders with Josephus and Sohemus, to destroy Mariamne and her mother, if any misfortune should happen to him. Mariamne having obtained this secret from Sohemus, upbraided Herod, at his return, with his inhumanity, for which he put both her and Sohemus to death, B. C. 22.

MARIA THERESA, Queen of Hungary, and Empress of Germany in 1740, who, with the assistance of Great Britain, maintained a successful war against France, Spain, Naples, Sardinia, Prussia, Bavaria, and Saxony, and established her consort Francis I. emperor, in opposition to Charles VII. of Bavaria. She died in 1780, during the reign of her son Joseph II.

MARIGNANO (Battle of), in 1515, in which the Swiss were defeated by Francis I. but with the loss of the chevalier Bayard.

MARIUS, a celebrated Roman general. He conquered Jugurtha, King of Numidia, and afterwards, for several successive years, carried on war with the Cimbri and Teutones, barbarous nations, who attempted to subdue Italy. In his old age he engaged in a civil war with Sylla, and was compelled to flee to Africa. His party becoming victorious, he returned to Rome, where he died, 86, B. C.

MARLBOROUGH (Duke of) and prince of the holy Roman empire, was born at Ashe, in Devonshire, in 1650. He was educated at St. Paul's school. At the age of twelve years his father took him to court, where he became page to the Duke of York, and in 1666 obtained a pair of colours in the guards. His first service was at the siege of Tangier; and in 1672 he was captain of grenadiers under the Duke of Monmouth, with whom he served in the Low Countries, and distinguished himself so gallantly at the siege of Nimeguen as to attract the notice of the great Turenne, who called him the handsome Englishman. For his conduct at the siege of Maestricht he received the thanks of the French king at the head of the line. On his return to England he was made lieutenant-colonel, also gentleman of the bed-chamber, and

master of the robes to the Duke of York, whom he attended to the Netherlands in 1679, as he afterwards did to Scotland. In 1681 he married Miss Sarah Jennings, who waited on the Princess Anne, by which match he greatly strengthened his interest at court. In 1682 he was shipwrecked with the Duke of York, in their passage to Scotland, on which occasion his royal highness expressed the utmost anxiety to save the colonel, who in the same year was made Baron of Bymouth. He still continued to be a favourite after the accession of James, who sent him ambassador to France. In 1685 he was created Lord Churchill of Sandridge; and the same year he suppressed Monmouth's rebellion. He continued to serve King James with great fidelity till the arrival of the Prince of Orange, and then left him. After the Revolution he was created Earl of Marlborough, and appointed commander-in-chief of the English army in the Low Countries. He next served in Ireland, where he reduced Cork, with other strong places. Notwithstanding these services, in 1692 he was suddenly dismissed from his employments, and committed to the Tower on a charge of treason, but soon obtained his release, though amongst the Stuart papers sufficient evidence of his guilt has since appeared. After the death of Queen Mary he was restored to favour, and appointed governor to the young Duke of Gloucester. In 1700 he was made commander-in-chief of the English forces in Holland, where also he held the charge of ambassador. At the beginning of the next reign he received the order of the garter, and was declared captain-general of all the forces in England and abroad. The states-general, also, gave him the supreme command of the Dutch troops; and in the campaign of 1702 he took a number of strong towns, particularly Liège—for which he was created Duke of Marlborough. In 1704 he joined Prince Eugene, with whom he gained the battle of Blenheim, taking Marshal Tallard prisoner. Just before this he had been created a prince of the empire. In the winter he returned to England, and received the thanks of parliament, with the grant of the manor of Woodstock

and the hundred of Wotton. On the 12th May, 1706, he fought the battle of Ramillies, which victory accelerated the fall of Louvain, Brussels, and other important places. He arrived in England in November, and received fresh honours and grants from the queen and parliament. A bill was passed to settle his honours upon the male and female issue of his daughters; and Blenheim House was ordered to be built to perpetuate his exploits; besides all which he had a pension of 5000*l.* a-year out of the post-office. The following campaign was inactive; but the ensuing one was pushed with such vigour, that the French king was glad to enter into a negotiation for peace. In 1709 he defeated Marshal Villars at Malplaquet; for which victory a general thanksgiving was solemnized. In the winter of 1710 he returned to England, and soon after was dismissed from his employments; and even a prosecution was commenced against him for applying the public money to his private purposes. Stung by this ingratitude, he went abroad till 1714, when he returned, and landed at Dover, amidst the acclamations of the people. Queen Anne was just dead, and her successor restored the duke to his military appointments; but, his infirmities increasing, he retired from public employments, and died at Windsor Lodge, having survived his intellectual faculties, June 16, 1722, and his remains were interred with great solemnity in Westminster Abbey.—Marlborough was remarkable for his parsimony, avarice, and finesse. Many anecdotes respecting the two former vices are recorded of him. Of his powers at *finesse*, the following anecdote will sufficiently testify: When he commanded the allied army in Germany he called a council of war on a particular occasion, to determine whether he should attack the enemy the following day. His general officers were unanimous in recommending the measure; but the duke expressed his objections to it in the strongest terms, and the council submitted to his superior judgment. When he retired into his tent, Prince Eugene followed him, and lamented the disgrace in which such a decision would involve them. "My resolution,"

said the duke, "is fixed to give battle to-morrow, and I shall instantly issue the necessary orders: but I opposed this plan in council, because I had received information that our enemies had concerted the means of becoming acquainted with the result of our deliberations; and you will agree with me in the necessity of our deceiving them."

MARPESIA, a celebrated queen of the Amazons, who waged a successful war against the inhabitants of Mount Caucasus. The mountain was called Marpesia Mons, from its female conqueror.

MARSTON MOOR (Battle of), in 1644, in which the forces of Charles I. under the Duke of Newcastle and Prince Rupert, were totally routed by Fairfax, Cromwell, and Leslie, inasmuch, that the king's forces never afterwards appeared in strength.

MARTEL (Charles,) in 714, mayor of the palace to the King of France; but from 737 to 741, he ruled as duke and prince of the Franks, and at Tours, in 732, gained a great victory over the Saracens. He also subdued the Alemanni, Bavarians, and Frisians, and left the kingdom to his sons Pepin, and Carloman.

MARTIN, the name of five kings of Arragon, the last of whom conquered Sicily, and died in 1410.

MARY DE MEDICIS, daughter of Francis II. grand duke of Tuscany, and wife of Henry IV. king of France, was born at Florence in 1573. On the death of her husband in 1610, she was named regent of the kingdom. She was a woman of great political intrigue, and of unbounded ambition. Differences arose between her and Louis, which were compromised by means of Richelieu, whom she introduced to the favour of that monarch. But afterwards a violent breach occurred between her and the cardinal, who was supported by the king. Mary was exiled to Brussels, and all her favourites, and even her physician, were either banished or sent to the bastille. She died in poverty at Cologne, in 1642.

MARY, Queen of England, was daughter of Henry VIII. by Catharine of Arragon, and born in 1517: a name odious to English Protestants; though the principles of religion and policy then entertained would go far to pal-

liate her conduct "in the minds of men not themselves subject to that unhappy spirit of religious exclusion which impelled her actions. She herself endured great persecution from her father; and his treatment of her mother was not calculated to inspire her with any respect for his innovations, as she thought them, in religion. On her accession she displayed the most cool, inveterate, and persevering opposition to the reformed tenets; and to shew her decision more absolutely, married with Philip of Spain, notoriously the greatest bigot of his time. Her reign is a mere history of suffering and disgrace to the English nation—persecuted at home, and disgraced and defeated abroad. In putting to death, at her accession, Lady Jane Grey and her husband, Lord Dudley, she is thought to have betrayed merely a sanguinary and revengeful disposition; but it is probable that she also had regard to the avowed motive, under which they pretended to the throne, the overthrow of the Roman Catholic form of religion. She lived to be hated even by those of her own persuasion, though she reigned only five years, receiving, as is supposed, her death-stroke from the news of Calais being taken by the French, 1558.

MARY II., queen of England, the wife of William III., was the daughter of James II. by Anne Hyde, daughter of the Earl of Clarendon. At the age of 15 she was married to William, prince of Orange, whom she followed to England in 1689. The same year, parliament having declared the crown vacant by the abdication of James, conferred it upon William and Mary. She was of a meek disposition, and did not interfere in matters of government, except when her husband was absent. She died without issue, of the small-pox, in 1694, aged 32.

MARY, Queen of Scots, daughter of James V. King of Scotland; a woman, of whom it is difficult to say whether she were more remarkable for her beauty, her misfortunes, or her laxity of morals. At eight days old, on the death of her father, she became the heirress of his throne. While yet an infant, she was unconsciously the occasion of a war with

HISTORY.

England; the regency having refused the political offer of Henry VIII. to unite both kingdoms by the marriage of his son Edward with the heiress of Scotland. At six years of age, she was contracted to the dauphin of France, and resided at Paris till the marriage was solemnized in 1548. There she committed her first political error, in deference to the wishes of her father-in-law; assuming the title of queen of England, on the ground of Elizabeth's illegitimacy from the unlawfulness of Catharine's divorce. Such an act could not be forgotten by a woman of Elizabeth's feelings; and accordingly, on Mary's arrival in Scotland, on the death of Francis, Elizabeth never left unemployed a single opportunity of ruining her. Mary was also a formidable rival in point of female attraction, and Elizabeth could not forgive her competitor in being surpassed by her in beauty. Through the intrigues of Elizabeth, Mary, who had many offers much more suited to her rank, gave her hand to Lord Darnley, a weak but impetuous man, who was no way calculated to retain her affections. Mary, in return for his slighting and capricious conduct, gave unbecoming countenance to an Italian musician, named Rizzio, who was invidiously supposed to share the privileges of her husband. Darnley joined some other nobles, who getting privately into the palace, burst into the queen's room, and murdered Rizzio before her face. She now transferred her favours to James Hepburn, earl Bothwell, to whom, although at first disagreeable to her, she seems to have given herself away, principally to accomplish her revenge upon her husband. Darnley was soon after killed by an explosion of his house from gunpowder, and the general voice of history attributes the design to the Queen. Her subsequent conduct confirmed the belief: Bothwell was publicly impeached for the murder, and the Queen markedly implicated; yet after a scene of mock violence and plotted detraction, she gave her hand to the alleged murderer of her husband. Neither party, however, was long allowed to reap the advantage of the connexion. Bothwell, being opposed by a powerful confederacy of

the nobles, fled, and perished miserably in Norway. The confederate lords then obliged her to sign a renunciation of her crown in favour of her son, and she herself was committed as a prisoner, and secluded from her friends. The place of her confinement in the castle of Lochleven was all but inaccessible; but Mary's beauty had procured her a friend in one of her attendants, and by his means she contrived to escape. She found herself very speedily at the head of a considerable body of troops, who proclaimed her pretensions, and prepared to maintain them against those of the regent. They were, however, worsted in an engagement which ensued; and Mary, panic-struck, fled towards England, and put herself under the protection of one of Elizabeth's governors. This was exactly what that princess had hoped. She, however, disguised her designs under the mask of friendship; affected to pity the forlorn condition of the fugitive queen; and, under the idea of granting her an asylum, betrayed her into a prison. Elizabeth thus became the arbiter between Mary and her late subjects, and a sort of court was appointed to hear both parties, and decide between them; but the proceedings were stopped by Mary refusing to answer the accusations brought against her. During Mary's continuance in confinement, she engaged the affection of the Duke of Norfolk, a favourite of Queen Elizabeth, but who seems very readily to have entered into those ambitious views which such an alliance would naturally open to him. The design, however, was discovered, and Norfolk was committed to the Tower. On the promise of renouncing his scheme he was released; but on violating it, was again committed, tried, and executed. Mary had, by the countenance she gave to this plan, rendered herself sufficiently odious to a people who almost adored the woman she was endeavouring to supplant; and, on the discovery of a traitorous correspondence with Spain, in which Mary had coolly acceded to the plot of assassinating the queen, the anger and violence of the English people knew no bounds; and though it may well be doubted: whe-

ther even this act could justify the subjecting of an independent princess to trial and punishment by a foreign people, the general exasperation prevailed, and Elizabeth, with well-feigned reluctance, signed the warrant for her cousin's execution. Mary's character ever rose with her misfortunes, and now at their climax displayed a firmness and an energy of which her impetuous temper and fluctuating policy had excited little suspicion. After a long confinement at Coventry, she was removed to Fotheringay Castle, to undergo the formality of a trial. When brought before the commissioners she disclaimed their authority, and asserted her innocence. The commissioners, after hearing her defence, declared her guilty of conspiring the death of Elizabeth, and condemned her to death. Mary received the tidings with complacency. Many foreign powers interested themselves in her behalf; and her son James endeavoured to save her life, but in vain. A warrant was sent down, and read to the royal captive, who only entreated that she might be permitted the consolations of her own religion; but even this favour was inhumanly refused. She was beheaded in the castle of Fotheringay, Feb. 8, 1587, after praying to God to forgive all who had thirsted for her blood. Her remains were interred in Peterborough cathedral, from whence, with filial piety, they were afterwards removed by her son, and deposited in Westminster Abbey.

MARYLAND, one of the United States of North America, bounded by Pennsylvania, Virginia, and the Atlantic, being 110 miles broad, and 91 long. It was the third English colony in North America. William Clayburn planted the first settlement in 1631 on Kent Island, near Annapolis; but at the same period Lord Baltimore, a Catholic, formed a project to establish a Catholic colony; and obtaining a grant from Charles I. settled in Maryland, so called in honour of Henrietta Maria, his queen. The first colony consisted of 200 Catholics, many of them persons of distinction, who landed in 1634, at an Indian town, since called St. Mary's; and the government being on a plan of perfect freedom and re-

ligious toleration, the colony flourished exceedingly. It was, however, disturbed by Clayburn, the first settler, who excited the Indians to attack the Catholics, and compelled their Governor to fly to Virginia. The Long Parliament appointed commissioners to reduce and govern the colony; and on pretence of preventing the growth of popery, a severe code was introduced. Under James II. its charter was taken away; but the Revolution put an end to those vexations. In 1699, the seat of government was removed from St. Mary's to Annapolis. In 1776 the Marylanders united with the other States in resisting the British, and fought with great bravery under General Green. During the last war, four of her seaport towns were burnt by the British; and in 1814 the Americans were defeated at the battle of Bladensburg, after which Washington was sacked; but soon after, at Hurtle Point, the British were repulsed, and their general, Ross, killed.

MASHAM (Mrs.), bedchamberwoman to Queen Anne, in which situation she supplanted the Duchess of Marlborough, procured the dismissal of the whig ministry, which led to the peace of Utrecht in 1713.

MASQUE DE FER, or the "*Iron Mask*," the name of an unknown person in France, who was conveyed in the most secret manner to the castle of Pignerol, from whence he was transferred to an island near Cannes. He was a man taller than ordinary, and extremely well made. His accomplishments were evidently great, and he had a fine taste for music. He always wore a mask with steel springs, which was so constructed as to allow him free liberty to eat and drink. His keepers treated him with the greatest respect. At Pignerol he was intrusted to the charge of an officer named St. Mars, on whose appointment as lieutenant of the isles this unknown personage accompanied him, as he finally did to the Bastille, where he died in 1703, and was buried under the name of Marghiati. Two gentlemen who were prisoners in the room over him contrived to hold some conversation with him by means of the chibneys, and found

that he was a man of general learning; but he informed them that a discovery of his name and rank would be death both to him and them. Numerous conjectures have been formed, and dissertations written on this historical subject, which, for all that has been said, still remains in impenetrable obscurity. It is remarkable that no person of distinction was missing at the time of his being confided to the custody of St. Mars.

MASSACHUSETTS, one of the United States of North America, bounded by New Hampshire, Vermont, New York, Connecticut, Rhode Island, and the Atlantic, being 130 miles long and 60 broad. This state was first visited in 1602 by one Gosnold, master of an English bark, whose reports led to the formation of two companies in 1606, one formed in London and another in Plymouth and Bristol. The first party of 100 persons who landed in 1607, nearly all perished from the severity of the winter, and various diseases; but in 1620, a congregation of English Puritans settled near Cape Cod, at a place now called New Plymouth. John Carver was their first governor, and William Bradford the second, who maintained his authority for twelve years. Salem was the first permanent town; and in 1630, seven-ten ships brought to that place 1500 settlers. During the reign of Charles I., these infant colonies were oppressed by his commissioners, who claimed arbitrary power, but under Cromwell their wealth and population increased. Under James II., they were subjected to new persecutions; and at the Revolution, the Bostonians seized and imprisoned James's representatives. After the Revolution, Massachusetts contributed in an unsuccessful armament against Quebec; and, in 1708, a second. In 1745, it fitted out an expedition against Louisbourg under Pepperell, which it took. In 1757, she kept 7000 men in the field. Boston took the lead in the revolutionary war by an insurrection against the British, and by emptying taxed tea into the sea: the first battle during the war took place at Lexington, between the Militia and the British regulars, April 19, 1775; and another desperate conflict took

place at Bunker's Hill on the 17th of June in the same year. In 1776, the British were besieged in Boston by Washington, and obliged to evacuate it. In 1786, an insurrection broke out under one Shayne, in consequence of the pressure of taxes, but he was defeated at Springfield in 1787. During the last war with England, the federal party in this state gave uneasiness by various measures to the general government, and considerably encouraged the war party in England.

MASSACRES (Remarkable). Of all the Carthaginians in Sicily, 397 before Christ.—2000 Tyrians crucified, and 8000 put to the sword, for not surrendering Tyre to Alexander, 331 before Christ.—The Jews of Antioch fall upon the other inhabitants, and massacre 100,000, for refusing to surrender their arms to Demetrius Nicanor, tyrant of Syria, 154.—A dreadful slaughter of the Teutones and Ambrones, near Aix, by Marius, the Roman general, 200,000 being left dead on the spot, 102.—The Romans throughout Asia, women and children not excepted, cruelly massacred in one day, by order of Mithridates, king of Pontus, 89.—A great number of Roman senators massacred by Cinna, Marius, and Sertorius, and several of the patricians despatched themselves to avoid their horrid butcheries, 86.—Again, under Sylla, and Catiline, his minister of vengeance, 82, and 79.—At Praeneste, Octavianus Cæsar ordered 300 Roman senators, and other persons of distinction, to be sacrificed to the manes of Julius Cæsar, 41.—At the destruction of Jerusalem, 1,000,000 Jews were put to the sword, A. D. 70.—Cassius, a Roman general, under the emperor M. Aurelius, put to death 37,000 of the inhabitants at Scleucia, 197.—At Alexandria, of many thousand citizens, by order of Antoninus, 213.—The emperor Probus put to death 700,000 of the inhabitants upon his reduction of Gaul, 277.—Of 80 Christian fathers, by order of the Emperor Gratian, at Nicomedia; they were put into a ship, which was set on fire and driven out to sea, 370.—Of Thessalonica, when upwards of 7000 persons, invited into the Circus, were put to the sword by order of Theodosius, 390.—Belisarius put to

death above 80,000 citizens of Constantinople for a revolt, on account of two rapacious ministers set over them by Justinian, 532.—Of the Latins, by Andronicus, 1184 (at Constantinople).—The Sicilians massacred the French throughout the whole island, without distinction of sex or age, on Easter Day, the first bell for vespers being the signal; this horrid affair is known in history by the name of the Sicilian vespers, 1282.—At Paris, 1418.—Of the Swedish nobility, at a feast, by order of Christian II., 1520.—Of 70,000 Hugonots, or French Protestants, throughout the kingdom of France, attended with circumstances of the most horrid treachery and cruelty: it began at Paris in the night of the festival of St. Bartholomew, Aug. 25, 1572, by secret orders from Charles IX. king of France, at the instigation of the queen dowager, Catharine de Medici, his mother: it is styled in history, the massacre of St. Bartholomew.—Of the Christians in Croatia, by the Turks, when 65,000 were slain, 1592.—Of a great number of Protestants at Thorn, who were put to death under a pretended legal sentence of the chancellor of Poland, for being concerned in a tumult occasioned by a Popish procession, 1724.—At Batavia, where 12,000 Chinese were killed by the natives, Oct. 1740.—In England, 300 English nobles, by Hengist, A. D. 475.—Of the monks at Bangor, 1200.—By Ethelfrid, king of Northumberland, 580.—Of the Danes, in the southern counties of England, in the night of Nov. 13, 1002, and the 23d, Ethelred II., at London.—Of the Jews, at Richard I.'s coronation.—In York, 500, who had taken shelter in the castle, killed themselves, rather than fall into the hands of the people, 1189.—Of the English, by the Dutch at Amboyna, 1624.—Of the Protestants in Ireland, when 40,000 were killed, 1641.—Of the Macdonalds at Glencoe, in Scotland, for not surrendering in time according to king William's proclamation, 1692.—At Paris, Sept. 1792.—Of 600 negroes, by the French at St. Mark's, 1802.—At Algiers, March 10, 1806.—At Madrid, May 2, 1808.—Of the Mamelukes in the citadel of Cairo, March 1, 1811,

MASSANIRILLO, or ANZELLO; (Thomas,) a fisherman at Naples, who caused a revolt in that city on account of taxes, and gathered a rabble of near 50,000 persons, by which means he usurped the sovereign power, ruled the city with great terror about ten days, but was killed, and his body cast into a ditch, A. D. 1646.

MASSENA, a favourite general of Napoleon, whom, during his Italian campaign, he denominated the darling of victory. In 1799 he defeated the Russians at Zurich, and in the following year defended Genoa during a protracted siege. In 1810, he was frustrated in his pursuit of Lord Wellington at the lines of Torres Vedras. He died immensely rich in 1815.

MASSILIA (now Marseilles), a sea-port in the south of France, originally founded by a colony of Phœceans. The inhabitants were allies of Rome, and assisted Scipio against Hannibal. They took part with Pompey, and were subdued after a terrible siege by Cæsar. In 1524 the city successfully resisted the Constable Bourbon and the imperial armies.

MASSINISSA, king of a small country in Africa, who took part with the Carthaginians against Rome; he afterwards became the ally of the Romans, who were indebted to him for many victories. At his death he made Scipio Æmilianus guardian of his kingdom. He died B. C. 149.

MATHIAS CORVINUS, called the great, king of Hungary and Bohemia, was the son of John Huniades. The enemies of his father confined him in prison in Bohemia; but on regaining his liberty he was elected King of Hungary in 1458. His election, however, was opposed by many of the Hungarian lords, who offered the crown to Frederick III. The Turks profiting by these divisions invaded the country, but were expelled by Mathias, who compelled Frederick to yield to him the crown of St. Stephen, of which he had obtained possession. The war was afterwards renewed, and Mathias overrunning Austria, took Vienna and Neustadt, on which the emperor was obliged to make a peace in 1487. Mathias reformed many abuses, particularly with respect to duels and lawsuits, and was preparing an expedition

against the Turks when he died of an apoplexy in 1690.

MATIGNON (James de), Prince of Montagne, and Count of Thoirgnl, a famous general of France, was born in 1326. He displayed great courage when young in several battles, and in 1372 commanded the royal army in Normandy. In 1379 he was made a Marshal of France, and assisted as constable at the coronation of Henry IV. He died in 1397.

MATILDA, or **MAUD**, the daughter of Henry I., King of England, and wife of Henry IV., Emperor of Germany, was nominated in 1130 successor to the English throne by her father; but in her absence Stephen usurped the title. Arriving in England with a large army in 1139 she defeated Stephen, and was acknowledged queen in a parliament held in 1141. Stephen afterwards defeated the empress, on which the national synod declared for him, and Matilda was obliged to leave the kingdom. On the death of the emperor she married Geoffrey Plantagenet, Earl of Anjou, by whom she had a son, afterwards Henry II., King of England. Matilda died in 1167, aged 67.

MATTHEW CANTACUZENUS, the son of John, Emperor of the East, and his associate in the empire in 1354. John abdicated the throne some time after, on which Matthew remained emperor with John Palaeologus. These princes at length disagreed, and had recourse to arms. A battle was fought between them in Thrace, and Matthew being taken prisoner, was compelled to renounce the throne to his rival. He then retired to the monastery of Mount Athos, where he composed commentaries on the Song of Solomon.

MATTHIAS Correnus, a celebrated King of Hungary, who conquered Bosnia in 1463, and Moravia, Silesia, and Leusasia, 1479; Styria, Carinthia, and Carinola in 1485, in which year he also took Vienna. He founded the University of Buda, and promoted the arts and literature. He died in 1490.

MATTHIAS, Emperor of Germany, succeeded in 1612; and in 1618, by violating the Bohemian charter, caused the thirty years' war; died in 1619.

MAUREPAS (John Frederic Phi-

lippeaux, Count de) a French statesman, known as the adviser of the French interference in the affairs of British America. He died in 1781.

MAURICE, of Nassau, Prince of Orange, was the son of William, after whose death, in 1584, he governed the low countries, being then only eighteen years' old. He evinced, however, great courage and talents; and being named Captain-general of the United Provinces, established that liberty which his father had begun. He made himself master of Breda in 1590, and this was followed by the capture of Zutphen, Deventer, Hulst, Nimeguen, and Gerturydenburg. He defeated the Archduke Albert in 1597, and compelled the Spaniards to abandon the Low Countries the same year. In 1600 he was forced to raise the siege of Dunkirk, but he soon after gained a great victory over Albert near Nieuport. This was followed by numerous conquests. Maurice now aimed at the sovereignty of Holland, but was opposed by the virtuous Barneveldt, who lost his life for resisting the ambition of the prince, who died in 1625.

MAURITIUS (Tiberius,) a Roman emperor, was born in Cappadocia in 530. He was of a noble family, which originally came from Rome. After filling several places in the court of Tiberius Constantine, he obtained the command of the army against the Persians, and distinguished himself so well as to obtain the emperor's daughter in marriage. In 582 he was crowned emperor. He re-established Chosroes II. on the throne of Persia: and was engaged in a war with the Arabs, who had ravaged his territories, when his general, Phocas, usurped the throne, and having taken Mauritius prisoner at Chalcodon, put him to death with his five sons, A. D. 602.

MAXENTIUS (Marcus Aurelius Valerius), Roman emperor, was the son of Maximianus Hercules, and declared himself Augustus in 306. He was opposed by Galerius Maximianus, who was defeated, and slew himself. Maxentius then marched into Africa, where he became odious by his cruelties. Constantine afterwards defeated him in Italy, and he was drowned in crossing the Tiber in 312.

Before the battle, Constantine adopted the cross as his standard, and after the victory, made Christianity the religion of the empire.

MAXIMIANUS (Galerius Valerius), Emperor of the East, was originally a shepherd in Dacia, afterwards a soldier, and raised to the imperial dignity by Diocletian, who also gave him his daughter in marriage. He conquered the Goths and Dalmatians, but was defeated by the Persians, over whom he afterwards gained a complete victory. In 305 he compelled Diocletian to abdicate the throne; but his cruelty soon rendered him odious to the Romans, who raised Maxentius to the throne. Maximianus died wretchedly, A.D. 311.

MAXIMILIAN I. Archduke of Austria, was the son of Frederic IV., created King of the Romans in 1486, and elected emperor on the death of his father in 1493. He had several wars with France, which were mostly successful. He joined with pope Julius II. in the league of Cambray against the Venetians; and afterwards called a general council at Pisa in opposition to the pope, but he was reconciled to Leo X. Maximilian united with England against France, and served under Henry VIII. in 1513. He was a man of science, and wrote memoirs of his own life, and poems. He died in 1519.

MAXIMILIAN II. reigned from 1564 to 1576, and made an eight years' truce with the Turks in 1569.

MAXIMILIAN, Duke of Bavaria, in the 17th century, was called, on account of his courage and success, the Defender of Germany; and, for his singular prudence, acquired the name of Solomon. He zealously opposed the Protestants, and was considered as one of the principal supporters of the catholic religion. In 1620 he gained the battle of Prague against Frederic Prince Palatine, who had been elected King of Bohemia. For these services Maximilian was named an Elector of the Empire. He died in 1651, aged 70.

MAXIMILIAN-EMANUEL, Elector of Bavaria, rendered great service to the Emperor Leopold. He signalized himself at the siege of

Neuhause in 1693; at that of Badg in 1686; and the year following in the battle of Mohatz. He commanded about this time the army of Hungary, and took Belgrade sword in hand in 1689. He was afterwards governor of the Low Countries; but taking the part of France in the war about the Spanish succession, he was put to the ban of the empire, and deprived of his estates in 1706, but was restored at the general peace. He died at Munich in 1736.

MAXIMINUS (Caius Julius Verus), Emperor of Rome, was the son of a peasant in Thrace, and having displayed great courage in the Roman armies, he rose to command. On the death of Alexander Severus, he caused himself to be proclaimed emperor A.D. 235. He was a great persecutor; and put to death above 4000 persons, on suspicion of their being concerned in a conspiracy against him. His soldiers assassinated him near Aquileia, A.D. 236. His stature and strength were very extraordinary; and his disposition proportionably brutal. 40 pounds of meat, and 18 bottles of wine, were his ordinary allowance for a day. His strength was such that he is said to have stopped a chariot in full speed with one of his fingers.

MAXIMINUS, one of the Cæsar or subordinate emperors, chosen by Galerius in 306, to assist in the government of the empire. He died in 312.

MAXIMUS (Magnus), a Spaniard, was general of the Roman army in Britain when he proclaimed himself emperor A.D. 383. Gratian marched against him, but was defeated, and assassinated. Maximus, having made himself master of Gaul, Britain, and Spain, fixed the seat of his empire at Treves. He next marched into Italy, where he committed dreadful cruelties; but was at last beleagued in Aquileia, by the Emperor Theodosius. His soldiers delivered him up to Theodosius, who caused him to be beheaded in 386.

MAXIMUS, a Roman emperor, slain in 455, in a battle with Genseric.

MAXIMUS the Cynic, and tutor of Julian the Apostate, was a native of Ephesus. He professed magic, and was put to death by the Emperor Valens in 366.

MAYENNE (Charles of Lorraine, Duke of), second son of Francis of Lorraine, Duke of Guise, was born in 1554; he displayed great courage at the siege of Poitiers and Rochelle, and at the battle of Montcontour. He also defeated the Protestants in Gaenne, Dauphiny, and Saintonge. When his brothers were killed at the meeting of the states at Blois, he declared himself head of the league, and assumed the title of Lieutenant-general of France. He proclaimed the cardinal of Bourbon king, by the name of Charles X.; but was defeated by Henry IV. at the battle of Arques, and again at Ivry. In 1599 he was reconciled to the king, who made him governor of the Isle of France. He died in 1611.

MAZARIN (Julius), a Roman cardinal and minister of state, was born in Piscina in Italy, in 1602. Being appointed Nuncio Extraordinary to France, he acquired the friendship of Richelieu and the confidence of Louis XIII. In 1641, Pope Urban VIII. made him cardinal; and on the death of Richelieu, Louis appointed him Minister of State. He was also nominated one of the executors of the king's will, and had the principal management of affairs during the minority of Louis XIV.; but at length the murmurs of the people rose so much against him, that he found it expedient to quit the kingdom, and a price was set on his head. He afterwards recovered his power, and continued to render the state the most important services, the principal of which was the restoring peace between France and Spain in 1659. His application to business produced a disease, of which he died in 1661.

MECCA, a large city of Arabia, and celebrated as the birth-place of Mahomet, and the seat of his power. Here a conspiracy was formed against the prophet, and flight was his only resource. After an exile of seven years, however, by the conquest of Mecca, the fugitive missionary was enthroned as the prince and prophet of his native country.

MECHLIN, or **MECHELN**, a large town of the Netherlands, suffered in some degree from the operations of 1793 and 1794, but more from the

subsequent discouragement of trade in the reign of Buonaparte.

MECKLENBURG. The early history of this country is so very remote, that it is impossible to place any reliance upon it. Some say that the family of the Dukes of Mecklenburg was admitted to the rank of princes of the empire so early as the fifth century; that the ducal title came much later, and not till 1349. At present the house of Mecklenburg is divided into two lines, Schwerin and Strelitz. Both received the title of grand duke at the congress of Vienna in 1815. Between these branches of the family the duchy is divided, Mecklenburg Schwerin possessing the greatest part of the duchy.

MEDIA, a celebrated country of Asia. It was originally called Aria, till the age of Medus, the son of Medea, who gave it the name of Media. The province of Media was first raised into a kingdom by its revolt from the Assyrian monarchy, B. C. 820; and, after it had for some time enjoyed a kind of republican government, Deioces, by his artifice, procured himself to be called king, 700 B. C. After a reign of 53 years, he was succeeded by Phraortes, B. C. 647; who was succeeded by Cyaxares, B. C. 625. His successor was Astyages, B. C. 585, in whose reign Cyrus became master of Media, B. C. 551; and ever after the empire was transferred to the Persians. The Medes were warlike in the primitive ages of their power; they encouraged polygamy, and were remarkable for the homage which they paid to their sovereigns, who were styled kings of kings. This title was afterwards adopted by their conquerors, the Persians; and it was still in use in the age of the Roman emperors.

MEDICIS (Cosmo), called the elder, the founder of an illustrious family at Florence, was a merchant, and born in 1399. He acquired great wealth, which he appropriated to the noble purposes of advancing learning, and supporting learned men. He collected a noble library, which he enriched with inestimable manuscripts. The envy excited against him by his riches, raised him many enemies, by whose intrigues he was obliged to quit his native

country. He then retired to Venice, where he was received as a prince. His fellow-citizens afterwards recalled him, and he bore a principal share in the government of the republic thirty four years. He died in 1464. On his tomb was engraved this inscription: The Father of his People, and the Deliverer of his Country.

MEDINA, a city of Arabia, celebrated as containing the tomb of Mahomet; during whose reign it was attacked by an army of ten thousand enemies: the prudence of Mahomet declined a general engagement, and the confederates at length retired.

MEDINA SIDONIA (Duke of), was commander of the celebrated Spanish Armada, in 1588. Contrary to his instructions he attacked the English fleet, and was defeated. Attempting to return to Spain by sailing round the northern parts of Britain, he lost most of his fleet and army by storms at sea.

MEDON, son of Codrus, the 17th and last king of Athens, was the first Archon that was appointed with regal authority, B. C. 1070. In the election Medon was preferred to his brother Neleus, by the oracle of Delphi, and he rendered himself popular by the justice and moderation of his administration. His successors were called from him *Medontidae*, and the office of archon remained for above 200 years in the family of Codrus under 12 perpetual archons.

MELAS, an Austrian general, who with Kray was engaged in 1799 and 1800 in the frontiers of Italy and Germany with various success, against the French under Scherer and Massena.

MELINDA, a kingdom of eastern Africa, was subdued by the Portuguese after the discovery of the Cape. It became one of their numerous tributaries, till about 1698, when it was wrested from them by the Arabs, in whose power it has ever since remained.

MELITA, a small town of Barbary, in the kingdom of Fez. It was taken from the Moors by Ferdinand, in 1496, who also fortified it. The Moors besieged it in 1687, but the garrison killing 800 of them at one charge, they retreated.

MEMNON, of the isle of Rhodes, an able general of Darius, king of Persia, whom he advised to desolate his country in order to impede the progress of Alexander the Great, and then to attack Macedon; but this counsel was over-ruled by the other generals. After the battle of the Granicus Memnon defended Miletus with vigour, took the isles of Chios and Lesbos, carried terror into Greece, and was near putting a stop to the conquests of Alexander when he was taken off by death. His wife was taken prisoner with the family of Darius, and became the mistress of Alexander.

MENDOZA (Peter Gonzalez de), a Spanish cardinal, and archbishop of Toledo, was born in 1428. He became an eminent statesman, and Sixtus IV. made him cardinal. He died in 1496. He is said to have translated the Iliad and Æneid, also Sallust, into Spanish.

MENESTHEUS, son of Peteos. He was king of Athens, and conquered that kingdom by the aid of Castor and Pollux, who expelled Theseus, 2864. He died in Melos, in 2871, after a reign of six years.

MENOU, a French general, who succeeded Kleber in the command of the French army in Egypt, was engaged against Sir Ralph Abercromby, and Sir Sidney Smith, by whom he was defeated in 1801.

MENTZ, MAINZ, or MAYENCE, a city of the west of Germany, in the grand duchy of Hesse. Marcus Agrippa established here an intrenched camp to oppose the Germans, who threatened Gaul with invasion. Its prosperity was checked by the great struggles between the Romans and Germans, which at last occasioned its ruin. It traces its regeneration to Charlemagne, who erected here a metropolitan church. In the 33 years' war it was taken by the Swedes, and in 1688 by the French. In 1792 it surrendered to the French. Next year it was taken by the Austrians, after a bombardment and siege of three months, during which, a great part of the houses was burnt down. In 1797, it came into the possession of the French in consequence of their successes in Italy, and of a compact with Austria. By the peace of Luneville, (Feb. 1801.)

HISTORY.

it was formally ceded to the French.

MENZIKOFF (Alexander), a prince of the Russian empire, was the son of a peasant, and the servant of a pastry-cook, who employed him to cry ptes about the streets. His appearance pleasing Peter the Great, he took him into his service. Menzikoff soon insinuated himself into the confidence of his sovereign, who made him governor of Ingria, with the rank of major-general, and at length conferred on him the title of prince. In 1713 he was accused of peculation, and condemned to pay a heavy fine, which the czar remitted and restored him to favour. Under the czarina Catherine he had still more power, and his daughter was married to Peter II., who made Menzikoff duke of Cozel, and grand master of the imperial hotel. But by the intrigues of Dolgoroucki, mistress of the czar, he fell into disgrace, and was banished to his estate; where he lived in such magnificence, that Peter was persuaded to send him, for his own safety, into Siberia, where he died in a poor hut, in 1729.

MERAT, or **MEERUT**, a town of Hindostan, has been from ancient times a place of note. In 1399, it was taken and destroyed by Timour, or Tamerlane. It is now a part of the British possessions in India.

MERCARA, a town and fortress of the south of India, and the capital of the district of Coorg. It was built by Hyder Aly, in 1773, and besieged by the Coorgs in 1785. By the treaty of peace with Tippoo in 1792, he was compelled to relinquish Coorg in favour of the rajah.

MERCIA, the name of the largest kingdom of Britain in the time of the heptarchy. It contained all the middle counties of England, and took its name from *Meare*, signifying a bound or limit, being bounded by all the other Saxon kingdoms.

MERIDA, a town of Spain, in Estramadura. In the war between the Goths and the Moors it fell to decay, and now presents but a feeble picture of its former prosperity.

MEROVEUS, King of France, succeeded Clodius in 448, and de-

feated Attila in 451. He is said to have extended the bounds of his kingdom from the banks of the Somme to Treves, which city he took and plundered. He died in 456. He began the race of kings called Merovingian.

MEROVINGIANS, the name of 21 kings of France, beginning in 420; with Pharamond, who was succeeded by Clodion, afterwards by Merovee, and ended with Childeric III. in 751.

MERWAN, of the house of Ommiyah, was proclaimed the lawful caliph after the death of Moawiyah II. Merwan was victorious over the opposite faction, commanded by Dehak in the plains of Damascus, and was, soon after, acknowledged as sovereign.

MERWAN II. was elected caliph, and, on account of his undaunted courage, was styled the warlike ass; the asses of Arabia being remarkable for their unparalleled fortitude and intrepidity.

MESNAGER (Nicholas), an able negotiator, was born at Rouen in 1656, of a rich commercial family. He was sent by Louis XIV. to Spain on some important missions relative to the commerce of the Indies; and afterwards to Holland; on which occasions he gave so much satisfaction as to be created a chevalier of the order of St. Michael, with patents of nobility. In 1711 he signed the preliminary treaty of peace between France and England at London, and he was next employed with the Abbé Polignac as plenipotentiary at Utrecht. He died at Paris in 1714. His memoirs have been printed.

MESSALINA (Valeria), daughter of Messala Barbatus, and wife of the Emperor Claudian, committed adultery with all the officers of her court. She also compelled her ladies to prostitute themselves, and that in the presence of their husbands. Having been repudiated by Claudian, she espoused her favourite Silius, who was put to death with her by order of the emperor, A. D. 46. There was another of this name, who was the third wife of Nero after her first husband Atticus had been put to death by that tyrant. On the death of Nero she devoted the remainder

of her days to study, and acquired a great reputation.

MESSËNIA was conquered by the Spartans in 632, B. C.—It revolted in 607, and was reduced again in 588; when many of the inhabitants quitted their country, and founded Messina in Sicily. They were restored to their former free state by Epaminondas in 369, were comprehended in the Achæan league about 280, but revolted in 191; and routing the Achæans in 183, they put to death the famous Philopœmen. The city, however, was taken by the Achæans immediately after, and from that time underwent the revolutions of the Achæans and of Sparta.

MESSENIUS (John), a Swede, celebrated by his learning and misfortunes. Gustavus Adolphus appointed him professor of law at Upsal, in which office he distinguished himself with such credit as to eclipse the other professors, by whose envious machinations he was accused of holding a secret correspondence with the enemies of Sweden, on which he was thrown into prison in 1615, and died in confinement in 1636. He wrote a great work in prison, entitled, *Scandia illustrata*, 14 vols. fol. Stockholm, 1714. His son Arnold Messenius was Historiographer of Sweden, but was beheaded in 1648, together with his son, who was only 17 years old, for writing satires on the royal family. Arnold wrote a history of the nobility of Sweden, folio, 1616.

MESOPOTAMIA, or **DIAREKKR** part of the kingdom of Assyria, was founded by Pul in 790 B. C. It underwent all the revolutions of this and the Persian empire, till it was conquered by Trajan in 106; after which it several times changed masters betwixt the Romans and the Persians, but generally belonged to the latter, till it was conquered by the Saracens, together with the rest of Persia, in 651. It was seized by the Seljuks in 1046, and by Jenghis Khan 1218. In 1360 Tur Ali Beg, the Turkman, founded the dynasty called Ak Koyunlu, or the white sheep, in this country. It submitted to Timur Bek in 1400, but he did not retain the conquest. In 1514 it was conquered by Imael Soû, the

Persian, was half conquered by the Turks in 1554, recovered by the Persians in 1613, but completely reduced by the Turks in 1637, when the Emperor Morad took Bagdat.

METELLUS, the name of several illustrious Romans.—**Q. Cæcilius** rendered himself illustrious by his successes against Jugurtha the Numidian king, from which he was surnamed Numidicus. He took, in this expedition, the celebrated Marius, as his lieutenant, but had soon cause to repent of the confidence he had placed in him. Marius raised himself to power by defaming the character of his benefactor; and Metellus was recalled to Rome, and accused of extortion and ill-management. Marius was appointed successor to finish the Numidian war, and Metellus was acquitted of the crimes laid to his charge before the tribunal of the Roman knights, who observed that the probity of his whole life and the greatness of his exploits were greater proofs of his innocence than the most powerful arguments.—**L. Cæcilius**, another, who saved from the flames the palladium, when Vesta's temple was on fire. He was then high-priest. He lost his sight and one of his arms in doing it; and the senate, to reward his zeal and piety, permitted him always to be drawn to the senate-house in a chariot, an honour which no one had ever before enjoyed. He also gained a great victory over the Carthaginians in the first Punic war, and led in his triumph 13 generals and 120 elephants taken from the enemy. He was honoured with the dictatorship, and the office of master of horse, &c.—**Q. Cæcilius Celer**, another, who distinguished himself by his spirited exertions against Catiline. He married Clodia, the sister of Clodius, who disgraced him by her incontinence and lasciviousness. He died 57 years before Christ. He was greatly lamented by Cicero, who shed tears at the loss of one of his most faithful and valuable friends.—**L. Cæcilius**, a tribune in the civil wars of J. Cæsar and Pompey. He favoured the cause of Pompey and opposed Cæsar when he entered Rome with a victorious army. He refused to open the gates of Saturn's temple, in which were deposited great treasures, upon which

HISTORY.

they were broken open by Cæsar, and Metellus retired, when threatened with death.—Q. Cæcilius, the grandson of the high-priest, who saved the palladium from the flames, was a warlike general, who, from his conquest of Crete and Macedonia, was surnamed Macedonicus. He had six sons, of whom four are particularly mentioned by Plutarch.—Q. Cæcilius, surnamed Balearicus, from his conquest of the Balears.—Cimber, one of the conspirators against J. Cæsar. It was he who gave the signal to attack and murder the dictator in the senate-house.—Pius, a general in Spain, against Sertorius, on whose head he set a price of 100 talents and 20,000 acres of land. He distinguished himself also in the Marston war, and was high-priest. He obtained the name of Pius from the sorrow he showed during the banishment of his father Metellus Numidicus, whom he caused to be recalled.

METIUS CURTIUS, one of the Sabines who fought against the Romans, on account of the stolen virgins.—Suffetius, a dictator of Alba, in the reign of Tullus Hostilius. He fought against the Romans; and at last, finally to settle their disputes, he proposed a single combat between the Horatii and Curiatii. The Albans were conquered, and Metius promised to assist the Romans against their enemies. In a battle against the Veientes and Fidenates, Metius showed his infidelity by forsaking the Romans at the first onset, and retired to a neighbouring eminence, to wait for the event of the battle, and to fall upon whatever side proved victorious. The Romans obtained the victory, and Tullus ordered Metius to be tied between two chariots, which were drawn by four horses two different ways, and his limbs were torn away from his body, about 669 years before the Christian era.

MEIZ, a fortified town in the north-east of France, was known to the Romans by the name of Divodurum. In the 6th century, it became the metropolis of the kingdom of Austrasia; and, at a subsequent period, a free city of the empire. In 1552, being threatened by the Emperor Charles the Vth, the King of France declared himself its protector, and

placed in it a garrison under the Duke of Guise. A siege took place: the defence was conducted with skill and courage; and after repeated attempts, the Germans were compelled to retire. It was finally ceded to France at the peace of Westphalia in 1648.

MEXICO, an ancient city, and capital of the kingdom of New Spain, was taken by Cortez in the year 1521, after a siege of 75 days, with a prodigious slaughter of the inhabitants.

MEZENTIUS, a king of the Tyrrhenians when Æneas came into Italy. He was remarkable for his cruelties, and put his subjects to death by slow tortures, or sometimes tied a man to a dead corpse face to face, and suffered him to die in that condition. He was expelled by his subjects, and fled to Turnus, who employed him in his war against the Trojans. He was killed by Æneas, with his son Lausus.

MICHAEL THEODOROWITZ ROMANOW, elected Czar of Russia, in 1613, equalled the most sanguine expectations of his friends, and exhibited strong marks of prudence and ability.

MICHAËL CORIBUT WEINSKOWISKI, was elected King of Poland in 1670.

MIDDLESEX, at the period of the Roman invasion, was inhabited by the Trinobantes, who were the first of the Britons to submit to the Roman arms. After the conquest of the island, it was included in the division of Flavia Cæsariensis; and Londinium, or Augusta, became a principal Roman station.

MILAN (Duchy of), or Milanese, an extensive country in the north of Italy; was comprised, with others, in the north of Italy, under the general name of Lombardy, until the 14th century, when Visconti, a nobleman, aspired to the sovereignty, and was supported by the emperor of Germany.—About the end of that century, John Galeotus, another nobleman of this country, purchased the ducal title from the reigning emperor; and his daughter marrying the Duke of Orleans, gave rise to the pretensions of the kings of France to this duchy. After the death of the last duke of this line, Francis Sforza,

a than of family and talents, so ingratiated himself with the people, that he was unanimously chosen duke in 1450. On the extinction of this family a century after, the emperor Charles V, gave the Milanese as a fief of the empire to his son Philip II., King of Spain; and it remained an appendage to that crown till 1706, when a brilliant campaign of Prince Eugene put it in possession of the house of Austria; to which, with the exception of the Sardinian Milanese, it continued subject during ninety years, until the victories of Bonaparte in 1796. On the formation of the Cisalpine republic, the whole of the Milanese, divided into four departments, was comprised in it; but on the reinstatement of the old order of things in 1814, the part belonging to the King of Sardinia was restored, and the remainder incorporated with Austrian Italy.

MILAN, or MILANO, a fine city, the capital of the Austrian kingdom of Italy, was of Gallic origin; and in the second Punic war, had acquired strength sufficient to keep the Roman army in check. It was, however, subjected to the Roman power, and enjoyed tranquillity for many ages. It became successively the prey of the Huns, the Goths, and the Lombards. Charlemagne restored it in some degree; but a great part of it was razed to the ground by Barbarossa. The possession of it was the object of prolonged contests between France, Spain, and Austria. The French made themselves masters of it in 1796; they kept it three years, and were then driven from it by the victorious army of Austrians and Russians. After the battle of Marengo, Milan again fell into the hands of the French, and continued the seat of their viceroy until the fall of Bonaparte in 1814.

MILESIA Monarchy, takes its name from the race of kings of Ireland said to have been descended from the three sons of Milesius. Ireland, like every other country, has its period of fabulous history, and it is during this time that the Milesian kings are said to have governed it.

MILLESIMO, a town of the Sardinian states, in the duchy of Montserrat, remarkable for the two obsti-

nate engagements in April, 1706, when Bonaparte began his military career, and opened a passage into Lombardy.

MILTIADES, an Athenian, son of Cypselus, led a colony of his countrymen to the Chersonesus. The first measure he took was to stop the further incursions of the Absynthians, by building a strong wall across the isthmus. When he had established himself at home, and fortified his dominions against foreign invasion, he turned his arms against Lampsacus. His expedition was unsuccessful; he was taken in an ambuscade, and made prisoner. His friend Croesus, King of Lydia, was informed of his captivity and he procured his release by threatening the people of Lampsacus with his severest displeasure. He lived a few years after he had recovered his liberty. As he had no issue, he left his kingdom and possessions to Steagoras, the son of Cimon, who was his brother by the same mother.

MILTIADES, nephew of the former, who married Hegesipyla, the daughter of Olorus, the king of the Thracians. In the third year of his government his dominions were threatened by an invasion of the Scythian Nomades, whom Darius had some time before irritated by entering their country. He fled before them; but, as their hostilities were but momentary, he was soon restored to his kingdom. Three years after he left Chersonesus, and set sail for Athens, where he was received with great applause. He was present at the celebrated battle of Marathon, in which all the chief officers ceded their power to him, and left the event of the battle to depend upon his superior abilities. He obtained an important victory over the more numerous forces of his adversaries; and when he had demanded of his fellow-citizens an olive crown, as the reward of his valour in the field of battle, he was not only refused, but severely reprimanded for presumption. Some time after Miltiades was intrusted with a fleet of 70 ships, and ordered to punish those islands which had revolted to the Persians. He was successful at first; but a sudden report that a Per-

reian fleet was coming to attack him, changed his operations as he was besieging Paros. He raised the siege and returned to Athens, where he was accused of treason, and particularly of holding a correspondence with the enemy. The falsity of these accusations might have appeared, if Miltiades had been able to come into the assembly. A wound which he had received before Paros detained him at home; and his enemies, taking advantage of his absence, became more eager in their accusations, and louder in their clamours. He was condemned to death: but the rigour of the sentence was retracted on the recollection of his great services to the Athenians, and he was put into prison till he had paid a fine of 50 talents to the state. His inability to discharge so great a sum detained him in confinement, and soon after his wounds became incurable, and he died about 489 years before the Christian era.—The crimes of Miltiades were probably aggravated in the eyes of his countrymen, when they remembered how he made himself absolute in Chersonesus, and in condemning the barbarity of the Athenians towards a general who was the source of their military prosperity, we must remember the jealousy which ever reigns among a free and independent people, and how watchful they are in defence of the natural rights which they see wrested from others by violence and oppression.

MINDEN (Battle of), gained by Prince Ferdinand over the French in the campaign of 1759. The victory was principally to be ascribed to the valour and steadiness of the British troops engaged. Minden surrendered on the following day; and the French retreated to the other side of the Weser.

MINORCA, the second of the Balearic Islands in the Mediterranean. In 1708 the English took possession of it, and retained it to 1758, when it was retaken by a French fleet and army, after the failure of an attempt to relieve it, which led to the sentence of the unfortunate Admiral Byng. At the peace of 1763 Minorca was restored to Britain; but in 1782 it was retaken by the Spaniards. It

was once more taken by the British in 1798; but was restored at the peace of Amiens in 1802.

MINOS, a king of Crete, who gave laws to his subjects, B. C. 1406, which still remained in full force in the age of the philosopher Plato. His justice and moderation procured him the appellation of the favourite of the gods, the wise legislator, in every city of Greece: and, according to the poets, he was rewarded for his equity, after death, with the office of supreme and absolute judge in the infernal regions.

MIRABEAU (Honoré Gabriel, Count), a French nobleman, was born in 1749. He led a dissipated life in his youth, and was oftentimes imprisoned. He went to Berlin towards the close of the reign of Frederic, and was there when the French revolution commenced, on which he returned home, and was elected a member of the states-general; and, in January 1791, he became president of the national assembly; but died of a fever on the 2d of April following.

MIROWITZ, the head of a conspiracy, formed in favour of Prince Iwan against the Empress Catharine of Russia. He forged a decree of the senate, by which Catharine was excluded from the throne, and Iwan was, by the same instrument, recalled to the inheritance of his ancestors. Iwan was, however, immediately put to death, in conformity to a mandate of the empress; and the bleeding body being exposed to the conspirators, Mirowitz, struck with horror, mournfully exclaimed—"I have missed my aim: I have nothing to do but to die; and immediately surrendered himself.

MISITHEUS, a Roman, celebrated for his virtues and his misfortunes. He was father-in-law to the emperor Gordian, whose counsels and actions he guided by his prudence and moderation. He was sacrificed to the ambition of Philip, a wicked senator who succeeded him as prefect of the prætorian guards. He died A. D. 248, and left all his possessions to be appropriated for the good of the public.

MISSISSIPPI, an immense state of the North American union east-

ward of the prodigious river of the same name, being 271 miles long, and 175 broad. The Mississippi was discovered by De Soto, a Spaniard in search of gold, in 1539, but he perished in 1542, and was buried on its banks. In 1683, its river was navigated by a Frenchman of the name of La Salle, who called the country Louisiana in compliment to his sovereign, Louis XIV. In 1716, the French built a town and fort at Natches, and from that time till the peace of 1763 were engaged in constant warfare with the Indians, during which, occurred many unavailing slaughters. At that peace the whole country was ceded to Britain, and in 1783 it was relinquished by the latter in favour of the United States, but Natches and other parts were held by the Spaniards till 1798, when they were abandoned by treaty. In 1800 this territory was erected into a distinct government, and in 1817 it was admitted as one of the states of the union, a state constitution for Mississippi being formed in that year.

MISSOURI, the name of one of the United States of America, situated westward of the Mississippi, and 272 miles long, and 222 broad. This country was discovered by the French, but known only to Indian traders, and considered as dependant on Spain till after the revolutionary war. The first village built in the country was in 1786, and in 1787 New Madrid was laid out as a regular town. By the treaty of 1783, Spain abandoned these tracts to the United States. In 1820 a bill passed in congress to enable the settlers to form a state constitution, and on the 10th of August, 1821, the president of the United States, by proclamation admitted this state into the union.

MITHRIDATES I. was the third king of Pontus. He was tributary to the crown of Persia, and his attempts to make himself independent proved fruitless. He was conquered in a battle, and obtained peace with difficulty. Xenophon calls him merely a governor of Cappadocia. He was succeeded by Ariobarzanes, B. C. 363.—The second of that name, King of Pontus, was grandson to Mithridates I. He made himself master of Pontus, which had

been conquered by Alexander; and had been ceded to Antigonus at the general division of the Macedonian empire among the conqueror's generals. He reigned about 26 years, and died at the advanced age of 84 years, B. C. 302. He was succeeded by his son Mithridates III.—This enterprising and powerful monarch enlarged his paternal possessions by the conquest of Cappadocia and Paphlagonia, and died after a reign of thirty-six years.—The fourth succeeded his father Ariobarzanes, who was the son of Mithridates III.—The fifth succeeded his father Mithridates IV., and strengthened himself on his throne by an alliance with Antiochus the Great, whose daughter Laodice he married. He was succeeded by his son Pharnaces.—The sixth succeeded his father Pharnaces. He was the first of the kings of Pontus who made alliance with the Romans. He furnished them with a fleet in the third Punic war, and assisted them against Aristonicus, who had laid claim to the kingdom of Pergamus. He was murdered B. C. 123.—The seventh surnamed Eupator, and The Great, succeeded his father Mithridates VI., though only at the age of 11 years. The beginning of his reign was marked by ambition, cruelty, and artifice. He murdered the two sons whom his sister Laodice had had by Ariarathes, King of Cappadocia, and placed one of his own children, only eight years old, on the vacant throne. These violent proceedings alarmed Nicomedes, King of Bithynia, who had married Laodice, the widow of Ariarathes. He suborned a youth to be King of Cappadocia, as the third son of Ariarathes, and Laodice was sent to Rome to impose upon the senate, and assure them that her third son was still alive, and that his pretensions to the kingdom of Cappadocia were just and well grounded. Mithridates used the same arts of dissimulation. He also sent to Rome Gordius, the governor of his son, who solemnly declared before the Roman people, that the youth who sat on the throne of Cappadocia, was the third son and lawful heir of Ariarathes, and that he was supported as such by Mithridates. This intricate affair displeased the Roman

separate, and finally to settle the dispute between the two monarchs, the powerful arbiters took away the kingdom of Cappadocia from Mithridates, and Paphlagonia from Nicomedes. These two kingdoms being thus separated from their original possessors, were presented with their freedom and independence; but the Cappadocians refused it, and received Ariobarzanes for king. Such were the first seeds of enmity between Rome and the King of Pontus. Mithridates, the more effectually to destroy the power of his enemies in Asia, ordered all the Romans that were in his dominions to be massacred. This was done in one night, and no less than 150,000 according to Plutarch, or 80,000 Romans, as Appian mentions, were made, at one blow, the victims of his cruelty. This universal massacre called aloud for revenge. Aquilius, and soon after Sylla, marched against Mithridates with a large army. The former was made prisoner; but Sylla obtained a victory over the king's generals, and another decisive engagement rendered him master of all Greece, Macedonia, Ionia, and Asia Minor, which had submitted to the victorious arms of the monarch of Pontus. This ill fortune was aggravated by the loss of about 200,000 men, who were killed in the several engagements that had been fought; and Mithridates, weakened by repeated ill success by sea and land, sued for peace from the conqueror, which he obtained on condition of defraying the expenses which the Romans had incurred by the war, and of remaining satisfied with the possessions which he had received from his ancestors. While these negotiations of peace were carried on, Mithridates was not unmindful of his real interests. His poverty, and not his inclinations, obliged him to wish for peace. He immediately took the field with an army of 140,000 infantry and 16,000 horse, which consisted of his own forces and those of his son-in-law Tigranes, King of Armenia. With such a numerous army, he soon made himself master of the Roman provinces in Asia; none dared to oppose his conquests, and the Romans, relying on his fidelity, had withdrawn the greatest part of

their armies from the country. The news of his warlike preparations was no sooner heard, than Lucullus, the consul, marched into Asia, and without delay he blocked up the camp of Mithridates, who was then besieging Cysicus. The Asiatic monarch escaped from him, and fled into the heart of his kingdom. Lucullus pursued him with the utmost celerity, and would have taken him prisoner after a battle, had not the avidity of his soldiers preferred the plundering of a mule loaded with gold, to the taking of a monarch who had exercised such cruelties against their countrymen, and shown himself so faithless to the most solemn engagements. The appointment of Glabrio to the command of the Roman forces, instead of Lucullus, was favourable to Mithridates, and he recovered the greatest part of his dominions. The sudden arrival of Pompey, however, soon put an end to his victories. A battle, in the night, was fought near the Euphrates, in which the troops of Pontus laboured under every disadvantage. An universal overthrow ensued, and Mithridates, bold in his misfortunes, rushed through the thick ranks of the enemy, at the head of 800 horsemen, 500 of whom perished in the attempt to follow him. Mithridates found a safe retreat among the Scythians; and, though destitute of power, friends, and resources, yet he meditated the destruction of the Roman empire, by penetrating into the heart of Italy by land. These wild projects were rejected by his followers, and he sued for peace. It was denied to his ambassadors, and the victorious Pompey declared, that to obtain it, Mithridates must ask it in person. He scorned to trust himself in the hands of his enemy, and resolved to conquer or to die. His subjects refused to follow him any longer, and they revolted from him, and made his son Pharnaces king. The son showed himself ungrateful to his father, and even, according to some writers, he ordered him to be put to death. This unnatural treatment broke the heart of Mithridates; he obliged his wife to poison herself, and attempted to do the same himself. It was in vain; the frequent antidotes he had taken in the

early part of his life strengthened his constitution against the poison, and when this was unavailing, he attempted to stab himself. The blow was not mortal; and a Gaul, who was then present, at his own request gave him the fatal stroke, about 63 years B.C., in the 72d year of his age. This prince, who made war against the Romans forty years, and was never entirely vanquished but by Pompey, although he had lost many battles against Lucullus, has been much praised. Cicero calls him the greatest of kings since the time of Alexander the Great.

MITHRIDATES, a herdsman of Astages, ordered to put young Cyrus to death. He refused; and educated him at home as his own son, &c.

MOAWIYAH, son of Abu Sophian, of the empire of the Arabs, who assumed the title of caliph, and whose claim was supported by the forces of Syria, and the interest of the house of Omniyah. He was succeeded by his son Yazid.

MODAIN, UL, a village on the Euphrates. It suffered much in the wars between the Romans and Persians; but it prospered till 637, when it was taken and sacked by Said, the Saracen lieutenant of Omar.

MODENA, an independent state in the north of Italy, possessed by the Archduke Francis of Este. In 1796 the Duke of Modena was expelled from his dominions by the French: and at the peace of Campo Formio, in 1797, the Modenese possessions were incorporated with the Cisalpine republic, but in 1814 they were restored by the Congress of Vienna to the archduke.

MOEZZ (Al), Caliph of Kairwan, who, on a count of some offence committed against him by Abdalrahman, Caliph of Andalusia, fitted out a fleet, with land-forces on board, to make reprisals on Abdalrahman's subjects. This enterprise proved successful. After a reign of more than 23 years he departed this life, in the 365th year of the Hegira.

MOGULS (the) are a tribe of Tartars, who lived about the middle of that extensive country, and were confounded with the rest, till Jenghis Khan, by his conquests, immortalized their name. He extended his dominions through a space of more than

800 leagues from east to west, and above 1,000 from north to south, over the most powerful and wealthy kingdoms of Asia. It is with justice, therefore, that he is acknowledged to have been the greatest prince who ever filled the eastern throne. He was the son of Pisaka, who first brought under his command the greater part of the chiefs of the Mogul nations, and who designated his son by the name of Temnjin, from a vanquished khan so called. After the death of his father Temnjin married the daughter of the great khan, who, harbouring suspicions to the prejudice of his son-in-law, was de-throned, and Temnjin took possession of the empire.—Temnjin was at that time forty years of age, when, seeing himself master of very extensive dominions, he adopted the resolution of rendering his power in some degree lawful, by the public homage of all the princes within the precincts of his empire. Accordingly, he convoked them at Karakorum, his capital; and, with the diadem encircling his brow, he advanced into the midst of this august assembly, seated himself on his throne, and received the compliments of the khans and other nobility, who offered up prayers for his health and prosperity. They then confirmed to him and his successors the sovereignty of the Mogul empire. After some subsequent victories, a similar inauguration took place at the head of his army, when Kockja, one of his relatives, who, by strictly practising the rigid duties of religion, had obtained the reputation of being inspired, approached the prince, and informed him, that it was the pleasure of God that he should henceforth assume the name of Jenghis Khan.—However, it is probable that the ambition of Jenghis Khan might have been satisfied with Tartary in its natural state, without walls or fortresses, had not the sovereign of the Klu, or northern part of China, imprudently demanded of him the same tribute as was paid him by princes whom he had de-throned, and whose authority he had usurped. This claim irritated the haughty conqueror, whose troops poured like a torrent over China, routed its armies, desolated the country, and amassed immense treas-

HISTORY.

tures. The cities, and even the royal residence, fell into the hands of Jenghis Khan, who, in the short space of five years, found himself master of all that extensive territory, and who appointed Muhali, his experienced general, governor and lieutenant, with the title of king, which was to descend to his posterity.—Jenghis Khan had determined to make the domains of Mohammed, Sultan of Karazm, the boundary of his empire; but a disagreement taking place with that sovereign, the great khan assembled all his forces, and, after defeating the sultan, besieged and took Bochara, the centre of his dominions, where all his wealth was lodged. Though Mohammed possessed a great part of Turkistan, was master of Great Bukharia, and Karazm, whence his monarchy derived its name, and held in possession all Persia, Persian Irak, and the frontiers of India, he could make no effectual opposition. The celerity and military exploits of Jenghis Khan resembled a torrent spreading devastation, or rather a thunderbolt bursting over several countries at once, and involving them in flames and ruin. Though the sultan made every effort in his power to succour his wretched dominions, his armies were constantly defeated in general engagements; and, after eluding his pursuers, he landed on a small island in the Caspian Sea, where an acute disease, added to his grief, speedily terminated his life. His son Jalaloddin endeavoured, but in vain, to avenge the cause of his father on the Moguls. While Jenghis Khan, on one side of his empire, had fixed the Indus as its limits, his lieutenants on the other subjugated Persia, enclosed the Caspian Sea within his dominions, and carried their victorious arms as far as Iconium, whose sultans, with some other Turkish sovereigns, they rendered tributary. The further enterprises of this aspiring monarch were always crowned with victory. He was constantly attended by prosperity, which never quitted him to his tomb. He died A. D. 1227, at the age of seventy, after a reign of twenty-two years, preserving to the last an undiminished authority over all the surrounding nations. The qualities of Jenghis

Khan characterized a conqueror: he possessed a genius capable of conceiving great and arduous designs, and prudence equal to their execution; a natural and persuasive eloquence; a degree of patience, which enabled him to endure and overcome fatigue; an admirable temperance; a superior understanding, and a penetrating mind, that instantly conceived the measure proper to be adopted on every occasion. His military talents appeared in his successfully introducing a strict discipline and severe police among the Tartars, who till that time were unused to any restraint. His laws were simple, and suitable to a newly-formed people, who have few complex social connexions. Though some of his own children, and princes of the blood, were Christians, and some Jews and Mohammedans, they incurred no marks of his disapprobation. He instituted a grand hunting-match, the model of which he left to his successors. Though Jenghis Khan had declared his son Ochia his successor, this prince refused to accept the crown till it was delegated to him by the states, which did not assemble till two years after the death of his father. He committed the general management of affairs to Yelü, a man of integrity and extensive knowledge; and he placed at the head of his armies his own brother Tolei, whose talents were of singular utility in the war which his father had left him to prosecute against the inhabitants of Southern China. Quay-yew, or Kayuk had a great respect for his mother, who, therefore, still retained a considerable share of the government. His beneficence and courage are deservedly applauded; and he commanded the armies in person at the conquest of Korea, and of the nations in the vicinity of the Caspian sea, A. D. 1247. He died at the age of 43, after a reign of eight years. On the first day of the year 1368, Chu was solemnly proclaimed Emperor of China, amid the greatest demonstrations of joy. Tonhantemur, naturally a coward, determined to retire into Tartary, and, surrounded by his guards, his wives, and others of his court, took his course towards the north. Thus ended the empire of the Moguls.

in China, after they had continued in possession of that vast country during a term of 162 years. Touthantemur retained his sovereignty over the Moguls in Tartary, where he was succeeded A. D. 1370 by his son, Ayyewahilitata, against whom, and his successors, the Chinese, sustained many sanguinary wars, notwithstanding the great wall which separated them. At length, however, they ceased to disturb each other, and lived quietly within their own territories. In this interval the Manchew Tartars became formidable, and in the end subdued both the Moguls and the Chinese.

MOHAMMED (See Mahomet.)

MOHDI, AL succeeded Al Mansur in the caliphate. He persecuted with unceasing rancour all sectaries and heretics. He is represented, by Arab writers, as a religious and devout prince, and extremely beloved by his subjects.

MOHTADI, AL was sainted caliph in 869. This prince has been represented as a great lover of justice, which he distributed daily in person to all his subjects.

MOKHTAR, a deserter from Solomon's standard, assembled the scattered followers of Ali, and with them gained considerable success. He was at length slain, and his troops dispersed.

MOLA DI GAETA, a town in Italy, near which Cicero was murdered. The ruins of his villas and his tomb are still to be seen.

MOLDAVIA, a province in the north-east extremity of European Turkey. Towards the close of the 12th century a Wallachian colony settled in this country. Their leader, Bogien, was the first Prince of Moldavia, and laid the foundation of the principal towns. In the 14th century it became subject to Hungary, after an obstinate resistance. The Turks, also, attacked it in 1280; and in 1529 the inhabitants submitted to Solyman I. on certain conditions. In 1686 Sobieski invaded the country, and the articles of treaty with the Turks were publicly burnt. Moldavia has suffered greatly in the late wars between Russia and Turkey, and has been the scene of several obstinate conflicts; and at the treaty of Bucharest, in 1812, the part of Mol-

davia to the north of the Pruth was retained by Russia.

MOLEVILLE (Bertrand de), a French statesman, was born in 1744. He was Minister of the Marine in the reign of Louis XVI.; and when the Revolution broke out he sought an asylum in England, where he published Memoirs of the Revolution, and several other works on that subject. He died at Paris, Oct. 19, 1819.

MOLUCCA ISLANDS in the eastern seas, first discovered in 1511. They were visited by the Portuguese in 1520, who took possession of them, and whose right was contested by the Spaniards. The Portuguese, however, retained them till 1607, when they were taken by the Dutch, with whom they remained till their capture by the British during the late wars, by whom they were again surrendered to their former possessors.—

MOLWITZ, a village of Prussian Silesia, famous for the victory gained by the Prussians over the Austrians in 1741.

MOMBACA, a fortified kingdom on the eastern coast of Africa, visited in 1497 by Vasco de Gama, who, finding an attempt was made to betray him, escaped, with some loss, to Melinda. In revenge for this treachery, the town was attacked by Almeria in 1507, and was plundered, and the greater part of it burnt. The natives again took possession of it; but in 1529 it was retaken by D'Acunha. It remained in the hands of the Portuguese till 1631, when the king of the country took it by storm, and put to death all the Portuguese who were found in it. The natives have since retained possession of it, and have treated in the most hostile and treacherous manner all Christians who have attempted to land.

MONACO, a principality in the north-west of Italy, governed by its own princes till 1792, when the French incorporated it with their dominions, and possessed it during the revolutionary wars. In 1815 it was placed under the protection of the King of Sardinia, but subject to its own prince.

MONAGHAN, a county of Ireland, the greater part of which, during the reign of James I., was for-

HISTORY.

felcted to the crown; but was afterwards assigned to British adventurers. A considerable share was also given to Cromwell's soldiers, many of whose posterity still enjoy small tracts. At Monaghan, the chief town, an abbey was founded at a very early period, which was pillaged in 830 and 931, on the site of which Queen Elizabeth built a castle and fort, as a defence against the inroads of the Irish.

MONCHABOO, a city of the Birman empire, celebrated as the birth place of the Emperor Alompra, founder of the reigning dynasty.

MONASTIR, **TOLU**, or **BISTOLIA**, a town of European Turkey, inhabited by the descendants of the Bulgarians, and plundered by Ali Pacha.

MONDEGO, a river of Portugal, whose banks were the scene of the great military movements between the French and English in 1810 and 1811.

MONDOVI, a town of Piedmont, where Bonaparte gained a victory over the Piedmontese in 1796, which led to the rupture of the court of Turin with Austria. In 1799, 40 000 Piedmontese peasants assembled here to interrupt the retreat of General Sonit, after the defeats of the French in Lombardy, and repulsed his division. A few days after a stronger body of French arrived, and compelled the town to capitulate; but the French, imagining the army was betrayed, the town was abandoned to a general pillage.

MONGHIER, or **MOODGONKEE**, a celebrated fortress in Hindostan, said to have been founded before the birth of Christ. In the early part of the 16th century, it was an object of contention between the Kings of Bahar and Bengal; and, in 1580, it was the head-quarters of rajah Toderinull, the general of Akbar. In 1658, sultan Shujaa, then governor of Bengal, repaired the fortress to oppose the army of his brother Aurungzebe; but Meer Joomla penetrating into Bengal, compelled him to abandon Monghier, and cross the Ganges. In 1762, the nabob Cossim Aly Khan strengthened the fortifications; but in the following year it was taken by the British, and was some time the station of a brigade; and in 1781, it

was subject to the Hindoo King of Bengal, who resided at Gour.

MONK (George). Duke of Albemarle, was descended from the Plantagenets, and born in Devonshire in 1608. At the age of 17 he served under his relation, Sir Richard Grenville, in an expedition against Spain; and, in 1629, he went as an ensign to the Low Countries, where he obtained a captain's commission. In 1639, he attended Charles I. to Scotland, and was made lieutenant-colonel; afterwards he went to Ireland, and for his services in the rebellion, was appointed governor of Dublin. On his return to England with his regiment, in 1643, he was made major-general in the Irish brigade, then employed in the siege of Nantwich, in Cheshire, where he was taken prisoner, and sent to the Tower. After remaining in confinement about three years, he was induced to accept a commission under the parliament against the Irish rebels; in which service he performed several great exploits, but at last fell under censure, for concluding a treaty with Owen Roe O'Neill. Upon this he gave up the command, and retired to his estate; but was soon called to serve with Cromwell in Scotland, where he bore a part in the battle of Dunbar; after which he was left in the command of the English forces in that kingdom. In 1653, he was joined with Blake and Dean in the naval service against the Dutch fleet, commanded by Van Tromp, with whom two desperate battles were fought that year, in both of which the English were victorious. Peace being soon after concluded, Monk returned to Scotland, where he remained during the usurpation of Cromwell, who regarded him with jealousy, and even imparted to him, in a letter, the suspicions which he entertained of his design to restore the king. Monk took no notice of this, but watched his opportunity; and when the authority of Richard Cromwell declined, he began his movements, and conducted them with so much judgment as to bring about that important event without bloodshed or confusion. After this he was created Duke of Albemarle, and knight of the garter. The remainder of his life was not

spent inactively; for when hostilities broke out with the Dutch, he again commanded the fleet, and fought De Ruyter and Van Tromp in a tremendous battle, which lasted three days. The duke had scarcely returned into port before he was called to London, in consequence of the dreadful fire which laid the greatest part of the capital in ashes; and so dear was he to the people, that when he passed along, they cried out, "If his Grace had been there, the city would not have been burned." He died Jan. 3, 1689-70, and was buried in Westminster Abbey. By his duchess, who survived him but a few months, he had one son, Christopher, who died governor of Jamaica, without issue, in 1688.

MONMOUTH, a county of England, on the borders of Wales, which, at the time of the Roman conquest, formed part of the country of the Silures, who so bravely resisted the invaders.

MONMOUTH, the capital of Monmouth county, in the United States, where General Clinton was defeated in 1777, by the Americans under General Washington.

MONMOUTH, (Duke of), son of Charles II. by Lucy Waters, to whom it was said that monarch was secretly married. He was early placed in the army, and served some campaigns in Flanders with great reputation. His supposed claims to the crown placed him in enmity with the Duke of York, and he lived in intimate connexion with the party that promoted the famous succession bill, and with the patriots of that age. On the death of his father he went abroad, and soon after landed in the west of England, publishing a proclamation, in which he took the regal title, and made noble professions in favour of liberty. Numbers flocked to his standard, but his forces were overcome by the genius of Marlborough at Bridgewater. A terrible proscription followed in the western counties, in which General Kirk and Judge Jefferies committed frightful cruelties; and Monmouth himself being taken to London, was tried and executed.

MONS, a large town of the Netherlands, besieged by Louis XIV. in 1691, when, to prevent its bom-

bardment, the citizens compelled the governor to capitulate. In 1700 it was taken by the allies under Marlborough and Eugene, after the battle of Malplaquet. In 1746 it was again taken by Marshal Saxe; and in the war of the French revolution (1792-3-4) it was successively taken, and retaken by the opposing parties.

MONTAGUE (Edward), Earl of Sandwich, was the son of Sir Sidney Montague, and born in 1625. At the age of 18 he raised a regiment in the service of parliament, and was present in several battles; but in the Dutch war he left the army for the navy, and was associated with Blake in the Mediterranean. Afterwards he commanded the fleet in the north sea; but at his return was deprived of it on suspicion of being in the royal interest. Monk, however, procured him to be replaced; and he conveyed the king to England; after which he was created Earl of Sandwich. In the war of 1664 he commanded under the Duke of York, and had a principal share in the great battle of June 3, 1665. Soon after this he went to Spain, where he negotiated a peace between that country and Portugal. On the renewal of the Dutch war, in 1672, he commanded a squadron under the Duke of York; but his ship taking fire, he jumped overboard, and was drowned.

MONTAGUE, a town in France, remarkable as the scene of an obstinate engagement, 1793, between the royalists and republicans, in which the former were defeated.

MONTAUBAN, a town of France, the inhabitants of which, in 1552, embraced the reformation, and fortified it, so that it became a principal strong hold of the Hugonots, in the civil wars. In 1621 the town was besieged by Louis XIII in person, but it did not surrender till 1629, when the fortifications were demolished. During the reign of Louis XIV. it was deprived of many valuable citizens, who quitted France during the persecution of the protestants.

MONTEBELLO, a town of Austrian Italy, the scene of an engagement between the French and Austrians in 1796, where Marshal Lannes distinguished himself by his

HISTORY.

heroic conduct, and obtained on the subsequent elevation of Bonaparte, the title of Duke of Montebello.

MONTECHIARO, a town on the Ohiese, where, in 1796, the Austrians were defeated by the French, with immense slaughter.

MONTECUCULI (Raymond de), a celebrated general, was born in 1698, in the territory of Modena. He served under his uncle, who was a general in the imperial troops; and in 1687 he defeated Razolzi, Prince of Transylvania. In 1664 he gained a victory over the Turks at St. Gotthard; and in 1673 he had to contend with Turenne, whose death he greatly lamented. He was next opposed to Condé; and he congratulated himself in not having been defeated by two such commanders. He died in 1686.

MONTENOTTE, a mountain in the north-west of Italy, celebrated as the scene of the first military exploit of Bonaparte. Bonaparte arrived at head quarters early in 1796; his army was very inferior in numbers to that of his enemies:—"But if we are vanquished," said he, "I shall have too much; if conquerors, we stand in need of nothing."—The Austrians and Piedmontese occupied all those parts of the Alps which command the shore of Genoa. The French had their right supported by Savona, with their left towards Montenotte while two demi-brigades were much advanced in front of their right at Voltri.—After some time spent in movements, intended to deceive the French, hostilities were commenced by the Imperialists. Beaulieu ordered 10,000 men to attack the post of Voltri. General Cervoni, with 3000 men, retreated in the night, in great order, to the church of our Lady of Savona, and Bonaparte covered him with 1500 men, posted expressly in the avenues of Saspello, and on the heights of Veraglio. On the 16th, Beaulieu, with 15,000 men, attacked and drove in all which supported the centre of the French, and at one o'clock of the day was before the redoubt of Montenotte, the last of their entrenchments. In spite of repeated charges, this redoubt arrested the progress of the enemy. The Chief of Brigade, Rampon, who command-

ed these 1500 men, made his soldiers take an oath to perish in the redoubt, and for the whole night kept the enemy at the distance of pistol shot. During this time General Laharpe took post behind the redoubt, and Bonaparte, followed by the Generals Berthier and Massena, and the Commissioner Salicetti, brought up his centre and his left, at one o'clock in the morning, by Altara, on the flank and rear of the Austrians. On the 11th, of day-break, Beaulieu and Laharpe attacked each other with vigour and various success, when Massena appeared dealing death and terror on the Austro-Sardinians, where General Argenteau commanded. The enemy's Generals, Argento and Rocceavino, were wounded, and the route was complete. 1500 men were killed, and 2500 were made prisoners; of which 60 were officers; several standards were taken; and the French, by gaining the battle of Montenotte, made themselves masters of Carcara on the 12th, and also of Cairo.

MONTE VIDEO, a town of South America, captured by the British in 1806, after a desperate conflict, attended with immense slaughter. After the unsuccessful attack of Buenos Ayres, by the British in 1807, Monte Video was evacuated, with all the other Spanish settlements.

MONTGOMERY (Gabriel, Count) a French nobleman, who, in 1559, had the misfortune to kill Henry II., by accidentally striking him in the eye at a tournament. He then quitted France; but returned during the civil wars, and placed himself at the head of the protestants. After many vicissitudes he was taken prisoner, and beheaded at Paris in 1574.

MONTLUC (Blaise de), a celebrated commander, was born of a noble family, near Condom, in 1500. After serving in the wars of Italy, he took Boulogne from the English; and in 1554 was appointed Governor of Sienna, which he defended to the utmost extremity, for eight months, and then surrendered the place on honourable terms. He was next employed against the protestants in France, towards whom he behaved with great cruelty. He died in 1577.

MONTMARTRE, a hill near Paris, the scene of a sharp contest between the French and the allies, on the 30th of March, 1814.

MONTMIRAIL, a town of France, the scene of an obstinate action between the French and Russian allies, Feb. 12, 1814.

MONTMORENCY (Matthew de), Constable of France, who distinguished himself in the crusade against the Albigenses, and afterwards in the wars with the English, from whom he took several strong places. He died in 1230. His descendant, Anne de Montmorency, was also a celebrated general, and was made prisoner, with Francis I., at the battle of Pavia. The services which he rendered to his country obtained for him the sword of constable in 1538. Charles IX. employed him against the protestants, who took him prisoner at the battle of Dreux in 1561; but he recovered his liberty soon afterwards, and fell at the battle of St. Dennis in 1567. His grandson, the Duke de Montmorency, was beheaded, in 1632, for conspiring with Gaston of Orleans, and raising an insurrection in Languedoc.

MONTREAL, a town of Upper Canada, taken by the English under the command of General Amherst, in 1760. In 1773, it was taken by the Americans, under General Montgomery, but soon after evacuated.

MONTROSE (Marquis of), one of the most chivalrous and infuriated partisans of Charles I., who after the cause of the Stuarts appeared to be hopeless, persevered in exciting insurrections in Scotland, but being taken he was brought to Edinburgh, tried, and executed on a gibbet 43 feet high, on the 23d of September, 1650.

MONTSERRAT, an island in the West Indies. In 1666, after the French had made themselves masters of Antigua, M. de la Barre made a descent upon Montserrat, which he reduced. In 1712 the French took and burnt all the shipping except one vessel which escaped. These hostilities happening when the negotiations for peace were pending, the British plenipotentiaries at Utrecht insisted upon indemnification; some stipulations were inserted in the treaty, but the sufferers only re-

ceived satisfaction from the British parliament.

MOOLTAU, a province of Hindoostan, taken by Shaikh Yusuf Coreishy in the 14th century, which remained in his hands till it was reconquered by Shire Shah in the middle of the 16th century, and soon after became subject to the Mogul dynasty, on whose decline it fell into the hands of several chiefs.

MOOLTAU, supposed to be the *Mullt*, of Alexander, and capital of the above-mentioned province. It was taken by the Arabs in 712, who plundered it of its immense wealth. In 1010 it was captured by sultan Mahmud of Ghizne, and its chief taken prisoner; and was subsequently recovered by the Afghans, and again captured by Mahomed Ghorqui in 1176. From that period it was subject to the kings of Delhi, till 1396, when it was captured by Tamerlane, and after his retreat from Hindoostan, it was the capital of an independent dynasty, till the middle of the 16th century, when it was subdued by the Mogul emperor Homayoon. Mooltan is now governed by a nabob, a mere dependant on the king of the Afghans.

MOORE (Sir John), was born at Glasgow in 1761. At the age of 15 he obtained an ensigny in the 51st regiment of foot; of which, in 1790, he became lieutenant-colonel, and served with his corps in Corsica, where he was wounded in storming the Mozello fort at the siege of Calvi. In 1796 he went out as brigadier-general to the West Indies, under Sir Ralph Abercromby, who appointed him to the government of St. Lucia, in the capture of which he had a principal share. On his return home, in 1797, he was employed in Ireland during the rebellion, and was raised to the rank of major-general. In 1799 he went on the expedition to Holland, where he was again wounded severely; notwithstanding which, he soon afterwards went to the Mediterranean; and at the battle of Alexandria received a cut from a sabre on the breast, and a shot in the thigh. On his return to England he was made a knight of the Bath; and in 1800 was appointed to command an army in Spain, where, after a signal retreat before a superior force, he fell under

HISTORY.

the walls of Corunna, Jan. 16th, 1809.

—The description of the battle of Corunna, and of the death of Sir John Moore, is thus briefly given by Bisset. The British army reached Corunna on the 12th of Jan. 1809, having lost one fourth of its numbers. Their situation was so disadvantageous that some officers suggested the proposal of terms to Soult, on condition that he should permit the troops to embark unmolested. Sir John Moore rejected the advice, and declared his resolution to accept no terms which should be in the least dishonourable to the army or to his country. In the evening of the 14th the transports from Vigo hove in sight. After the embarkation of the troops on the 16th, orders were issued, that if the French did not move, the embarkation of the reserve should commence at four in the afternoon. At mid-day, the general received information that the enemy were getting under arms. Two columns of the enemy directed their march on the right wing of the British, which was disadvantageously posted. Sir John Moore hastened to this part of the field, when the 4th regiment on the right flank was menaced by a body of the enemy who were hastening up the valley to turn it. He proceeded to direct the movements of the other regiments in this division, and was in the act of ordering up the guards to support the 42d Highlanders, when he was struck from his horse by a cannon-ball, which carried away his left shoulder and part of the collar-bone, leaving the arm hanging by the flesh. He was borne away by six soldiers of the 42d. The troops continued to fight bravely under Sir John Hope, on whom the command devolved, and at night-fall remained masters of the field. This victory was obtained under great disadvantages; the French force exceeded 20,000 men, well appointed and provided with cannon. The British scarcely amounted to 15,000, exhausted by harassing marches, and grieved by the loss of their military chest, their stores, their baggage, their horses, their sick, their wounded, their wives and children. If British courage could achieve victory in such adverse circumstances, what must have been its triumphs in

a conflict on equal terms! General Moore lived to hear that the battle was won; and in his last moments, after an affecting reminiscence of his mother, expressed a hope that his country would do him justice. His body was removed at midnight to the citadel of Corunna, wrapped in a military cloak and blankets, and buried in a grave dug in the ramparts.

MOOTYPOLLIAM, a town in the south of India, near which place a severe battle was fought between the British and Hyder Aly, July 1, 1781.

MORAVIA, an extensive province of the Austrian empire, formerly named Quadia, and part of the territory of the Quadi and Marcomanni, for several centuries the terror of the Roman frontier. Notwithstanding the many checks they received from the Romans and their barbarian neighbours, these tribes maintained their independence till they were overpowered by Attila, in the fifth century. The Sclavonians next founded a republic here, and maintained a precarious independence, till Swatspiuk united the whole of the Sclavonic republics, and founded the kingdom of Moravia; which is said to have comprehended Bohemia, Lusatia, Brandenburg, Pomerania, Silesia, Dalmatia, &c. On the death of this prince, in 894, his possessions were divided among his three sons, but dissensions arising among them, the Boii, or ancestors of the Bohemians, conquered part of them, and threatened the rest. In a short time, the Magyars, or invaders of Hungary, completely defeated the Moravians in 907, and thus crushed their independence. This fertile country, after being almost reduced to a desert, was seized on by the Dukes of Bohemia, who kept it till 1182, when it again became a separate government, and was elected into a marquissate. Several of the margraves, however, soon resigned their dignity, and Moravia next fell into the hands of the Hungarians, but their internal troubles soon obliged them to relinquish their valuable acquisition. Moravia for a time resumed its independence, but after various changes, became again subject to the kings of Bohemia; and in 1527, Moravia was added to the possessions of

the house of Austria, and has since been subject to the same sovereignty.

MORE (Sir Thomas), Chancellor of England, was the son of Sir John More, one of the judges of the King's Bench, and born in London, in 1430. He was educated in the family of Cardinal Morton, archbishop of Canterbury; and at the age of 21, he obtained a seat in parliament, where he opposed a subsidy demanded by Henry VII. with such spirit, as incurred the resentment of the king, who avenged himself on the judge his father, by causing him to be fined and imprisoned. When admitted to the bar, More delivered a lecture in the church of St. Lawrence Jewry, on part of St. Augustine's works, and the reputation he thereby acquired procured him to be chosen law-reader in Furnival's Inn. In 1508, he was made judge of the sheriff's court, and justice of peace. Henry VIII. delighted in the conversation of More, and conferred upon him the honour of knighthood; besides which he made him treasurer of the exchequer. Sir Thomas assisted the monarch in his book against Luther, and he afterwards defended it in a very able treatise. In 1523, he was chosen speaker of the House of Commons; and in 1530, he succeeded Wolsey as lord chancellor, which office he discharged three years with scrupulous integrity. Finding, however, that the affair of the king's divorce, to which he was adverse, would involve him in difficulties, he resigned the seals, and thereby provoked the anger of Henry, who was still more irritated by his refusal to attend the coronation of Ann Boleyn. An attempt was made to implicate him in the practices of Elizabeth Barton; and, though this failed, he was committed to the Tower, for refusing the oath of supremacy. After an imprisonment of twelve months, he was brought to his trial in the court of King's Bench, where, notwithstanding his eloquent defence, he was found guilty of treason, and sentenced to be beheaded. His behaviour, in the interval, corresponded with the uniform tenor of his life; and, on July 6, 1535, he ascended the scaffold, with his characteristic plainness, saying to the lieutenant of the

Tower, "I pray you, see me safe up; and as for my coming down, you may let me shift for myself."

In the same spirit, when he laid his head on the block, he told the executioner to wait till he had removed his beard, "For that," said he, " hath committed no treason." Thus fell this illustrious Englishman, whose learning and virtue entitled him to a better fate.

MOREA, the ancient Peloponnesus. The modern history of this country may be said to commence with the attack made on it by Amurath II. in 1432, which, however, proved ineffectual. In 1442, Turhambeg, a Turkish admiral, ravaged the coasts of the Morea; and, in 1452, Mahomet II. invaded and occupied the peninsula, except four maritime stations, which remained in the hands of the Venetians. Towards the end of the 17th century, these republicans and the inhabitants overran all the peninsula. This was confirmed to them by the peace of Carlowitz in 1699. They, however, lost it in 1718, since which time it has been subject to the Porte. The invasion of the Russians in 1770, at first very successful, and from which the general liberation of Greece was expected, may be said to have proved a source of great calamity to the people of Morea.

MOREAU, a French general, who gained advantages over the Austrians under Kray at Mosskirk; and, notwithstanding their gallant exertions, compelled them to retreat with considerable loss. The subsequent actions of Biberach and Memmingen proved equally unfortunate to the Austrians. Moreau, after signalizing himself in many celebrated victories, and in many masterly and successful military operations on the frontiers of Italy and Germany in the campaigns of 1796 and 1799, invaded Germany in 1800. Here, in co-operation with Bonaparte, he resumed an offensive campaign. He took possession of Munich, and laid the Bavarian territories and the duchy of Wirtemberg under heavy contributions. The Emperor of Austria now judged it expedient to sue for an armistice, which Moreau granted on the 14th of July. The armistice expired in November following; and Moreau, on the 2d of

HISTORY.

December, gained the decisive victory of Hohenlinden.—By the turn of circumstances Moreau is found in 1813 in alliance with Bernadotte, his early companion in arms, who commanded the army of the north of Germany against Napoleon. On the 29th of August, Bonaparte came out of Dresden with 130,000 men to attack the allies, having detached a force, under Vandamme, to seize the passes in their rear. In the assault on the preceding day, General Moreau, while conversing with the Emperor Alexander, was struck by a ball, which shattered one of his legs, and, passing through his horse, carried off the other. He bore the amputation of both limbs with great firmness, and was carried on a litter, formed by the lances of the cossacks, to Toplitz, where he expired.

MOROCCO, a large kingdom of Africa, and the chief of the Barbary states. It was formerly called *Mauritania*, and was then occupied by a hardy Nomadic race. It afterwards yielded to the Saracens; and, in the eleventh century, a chief of Lemptuna assumed the character of a reformer of the Mahometan religion, and assembled all the neighbouring tribes under his standard. His followers, called Almoravides, conquered Morocco, and even Barbary and Spain, thus establishing a vast empire entitled that of Mougreb, or the West. In the following century they were supplanted by the Almohades; and in 1347 an Arabian chief, of the descendants of Mahomet, ascended the throne, which his posterity have since occupied.

MORTON (Earl of), was a chief actor in the transactions of the reign of Mary, and in the minority of James VI. of Scotland. He joined in the slaughter of Rizzio, and after the death of King Darnley assisted to expel Mary from the throne. In 1572 he was elected Regent, and in 1581 he was beheaded at Edinburgh.

MOSCOW, an extensive city of Russia, in Europe, founded in the middle of the twelfth century. In 1392 it was besieged by Tamerlane, and it soon fell into the hands of the Tartars, who again attacked it in 1571. They burnt the city; but it

was afterwards rebuilt, and was for a century and a-half the capital of the empire, and the residence of the court till 1760. In September, 1812, during the war, the memorable conflagration took place, by which three-fourths of the city was consumed. The general plan of the campaign was to abandon and destroy; in August and September, when the French continued to advance, and it was thought impossible to check their progress, Count Rostopchin forewarned the inhabitants of the sacrifices they would be called on to make. The churches and the treasury were stripped of their ornaments; the persons belonging to the public establishments were removed to Kasan, and barks, laden with corn, were sunk in the Moskva, to prevent their falling into the hands of the enemy. The decisive battle of Borodino was fought on the 8th of September, about 70 miles from Moscow, and the hospitals were soon filled with wounded. On the news of the retreat of the Russian army, a general movement took place in Moscow. On the 13th of September the enemy drew near, and the mass of the population of Moscow fled into the surrounding country. On the 14th the French entered the city, and that night a fire broke out, which was soon got under. On the 15th fires burst forth from the shops; and on the following night a general conflagration took place, explosions in different places, and faggots thrown from towers, shewed that means were employed to spread destruction in every quarter. During the next day smoke rolled in thick clouds over the town, and at night a vast globe of flame illuminated the atmosphere several leagues round. The conflagration was rapidly spread by a violent wind, the buildings fell in with a tremendous crash, and the immense stones, calcined and blackened, only remained to denote their site. The French sentinels were, however, unable to detect the incendiaries; several stragglers were arrested, tried, and shot,—but all the men taken in attempting to spread the flames, declared they had acted under the direction of Rostopchin and the director of police. The French officers, on finding it impracticable to exting-

quish the flames; authorized a systematic pillage. The plunder was immense; but the greater part was abandoned in the disastrous retreat. The fire raged till the 19th: Bonaparte now remained at Moscow a month, in the hope of prevailing on the Russians to conclude a peace. Baffled in this attempt, he quitted the city on the 19th of October. The young guard, which formed the garrison left by Bonaparte, intrenched itself in the Kremlin; and, having undermined part of the walls and interior buildings, blew them up on the 23d October, the day of the final evacuation. The rebuilding of the city proceeded but slowly till 1814, when the greatest exertions were made; and by the beginning of 1818 the new city seemed to have risen from the ruins,—and by the end of that year the whole was completed.—(See *Russia*.)

MOSES, a celebrated legislator and general among the Jews, well known in sacred history. He was born in Egypt 1571, B. C., he conducted the Israelites through the Red Sea, and gave them laws and ordinances, during their peregrination of 40 years in the wilderness of Arabia. He died at the age of 120.

MOTHE, LA, or LA MOTTE, a small town of France, in the department of the Vosges. It was taken by the French in 1645, when it was completely razed. It was in a siege at this place, in 1634, that the French first used bombs.

MOUNTJOY, (Lord), succeeded the Earl of Essex as deputy of Ireland in 1603, during the reign of Elizabeth. He concluded a treaty with Tyrone, the Irish rebel chieftain.

MOURAT BAY, headed the Mamelukes amounting to 10,000 men, near Gizeh in Egypt, against Bonaparte. The Mamelukes fought with desperate courage; but the action, though bloody, was neither long nor doubtful. This action, which was called the *battle of the Pyramids*, convinced the French, from the obstinate resistance made by an inferior army, unskilled in European tactics, that they had no ordinary enemy to overcome.

MULEY MAHOMET, Emperor of Morocco, was deposed a few years after his accession to the throne in

1574, by his uncle Maley Molach—who gained the famous battle of Alcasor, in which Don Sebastian the King of Portugal, was defeated and slain.

MURAT, created Grand Duke of Berg and Cleves by Bonaparte in 1806. On the intrusion of Joseph into the Spanish throne, in 1809, Bonaparte transferred the crown of Naples to Murat, his brother-in-law. In Dec. 1812, Murat was appointed to the chief command of the French army at Wilna, after their memorable but ill-fated retreat from Moscow. In 1814 Murat joined the alliance against France by opening his ports to the English, and engaging to assist Austria with an army of 20,000 men. In 1815 Murat, by an enterprise against the Austrians in Italy, had lost the crown of Naples. When the expedition from Elba reached France, he assembled his cabinet, and declared his resolution to support the allies; but on learning that Bonaparte had entered Lyons, he demanded leave of the pope to march a force through his territories. Pius the VII. refused; on which two Neapolitan divisions penetrated to Rome, and his holiness, hastily retiring, placed himself under the protection of the English at Genoa. Murat himself advanced to Ancona, and his army marched in four columns on the routes of Bologna, Modena, Reggio, and Ferrara, while a fifth division drove the Austrian garrisons from Cesena and Rimini. Harassed on all sides by the British and Austrian forces, and having in vain solicited an armistice, he attacked Bianchi, near Tolentino, in which contest his army was totally ruined. After a disastrous retreat of ten days, he found, on approaching Naples, that the inhabitants had declared for the King of Sicily wherever the Austrians appeared; that Colonel Church was raising against him an army of his late subjects; and that every thing, in short, was going against him. Leaving his followers, who were now reduced to 4000 men, he hastened to Naples, and arrived at the palace, exhausted with fatigue. He escaped in disguise with a few adherents to the Isle of Ischia, and embarking thence for France, landed on the 25th of May at Cannes.

HISTORY.

Marat, after the battle of Waterloo, made his retreat in an open boat to Corsica. In September, proposals were made to Joachim, that he should assume the name of a private person, that he should choose his abode either in Bohemia, Moravia, or Upper Austria; and that he should engage not to quit those states without the consent of the emperor. He rejected this overture, and undertook, in imitation of Bonaparte, an expedition for the recovery of his kingdom. When he landed at Pizzo on the 6th of October, he could only muster about 30 officers. Thus disappointed he proceeded to Monteleone. He was overtaken half-way by a very strong party, and after fighting desperately, broke through his pursuers, and hastened to the beach, where he was seized and conveyed before General Nansiaute the commandant of Calabria. On the 15th, pursuant to orders from Naples, he was tried by court-martial, and found guilty of having attempted to excite rebellion and civil war; sentence of death was pronounced upon him, and executed on the same day.

MULWAGUL, a fortress of the south of India, taken by the British in 1768, without the loss of a man; but retaken in 1770, by Hyder Aly, who massacred the garrison.

MUMMIUS (L.), a Roman consul sent against the Achæans, whom he conquered, B. C. 147. He destroyed Corinth, Thebes, and Chalcis, by order of the senate, and obtained the surname of *Achaicus* from his victories. He did not enrich himself with the spoils of the enemy, but returned home without any increase of fortune. He was so unacquainted with the value of the paintings and works of the most celebrated artists of Greece, which were found in the plunder of Corinth, that he said to those who conveyed them to Rome, that if they lost them or injured them, they should make others in their stead.

MUNICH, the capital of Bavaria, surrendered to the Swedes and German protestants, under Gustavus Adolphus, in 1632; in 1704, it fell into the hands of the Austrians. In 1741 it shared the vicissitudes of the war, and in 1796, the French army under Moreau, obliged the elector to make a separate treaty. In 1800 Moreau

again occupied Bavaria, and secured his superiority by the victory of Hohenlinden; and from that time, to 1813, Bavaria remained in alliance with the French.

MUNSTER, a city of Germany, in the province of Westphalia. In 1536, John Bockels, a tailor, of Leyden, secured a party of the Anabaptists, took the command of a band of fanatics, and obtained possession of Munster as his head quarters. The bishop having collected troops, laid siege to the town, which after an obstinate resistance, was taken by assault. John of Leyden, and his accomplices, were taken and tortured to death. In the war of 1756, Munster was besieged by the French and Hanoverians.

MURÆNA, a celebrated Roman, left at the head of the armies of the republic in Asia by Sylla. He invaded the dominions of Mithridates with success, but soon after met with a defeat. He was honoured with a triumph at his return to Rome. He commanded one of the wings of Sylla's army at the battle against Archelaus, near Cheronæa.

MURRAY (Earl of), was the natural son of James V., King of Scotland. He was a powerful supporter of the reformation. After the return of Mary from France, he administered her affairs until her marriage with Darnley, which he opposed by force of arms, and was obliged to flee into England. After the murder of Rizzio, he was again restored to favour. He went abroad to France on the murder of Darnley in 1566, and returned on being elected regent by his party. This election was confirmed by parliament, and he soon established his authority. Mary, escaping from Lochleven Castle, collected her friends, who were defeated at Langside, near Glasgow, and she was compelled to flee into England in 1568. He was supported by the alliance of Queen Elizabeth. In 1569, he was murdered by Hamilton, a partisan of Mary, whose life he had spared. He dispensed justice with so much impartiality, repressed the licentious borderers with so much courage, maintained religion, and established such order and tranquillity in the country, that his administration was extremely popular, and

he was long and affectionately remembered by the name of the "Good Regent."

MURTEN, a small town in the east of Switzerland, near which was fought on the 22d of July, 1476, a famous battle between the Swiss and Charles the Bold, in which the latter was defeated with great loss.

MUSTAPHA, sultan of the Turks, was taken from prison and proclaimed, 1617. He was very cruel, and offered many indignities to the Christian ambassadors. Mustapha, by his cruelties, became so odious, that the grand-vizier, who was absent on an expedition against the Persians, returned with his army, deposed him before he had completed a year of his reign, sent him to prison in the castle of the seven towers, and placed his nephew Othman on the throne.

MUTINA, a Roman colony of Cisalpine Gaul, where M. Antony besieged D. Brutus, whom the consuls Pansa and Hirtius delivered. Two battles on the 15th of April, B. C. 43, were fought there, in which Antony was defeated, and at last obliged to retire. Mutina is now called *Modena*.

MUTIUS, C. Scævola, surnamed *Cordus*, became famous for his courage and intrepidity. When Porsenna, king of Etruria, had besieged Rome to reinstate Tarquin in all his rights and privileges, Mutius determined to deliver his country from so dangerous an enemy. He disguised himself in the habit of a Tuscan, and as he could fluently speak the language, he gained an easy introduction into the camp, and soon into the royal tent. Porsenna sat alone with his secretary when Mutius entered. The Roman rushed upon the secretary and stabbed him to the heart, mistaking him for his royal master. This occasioned a noise, and Mutius, unable to escape, was seized and brought before the king. He gave no answer to the inquiries of the courtiers, and only told them that he was a Roman, and to give them a proof of his fortitude, he laid his right hand on an altar of burning coals, and sternly looking at the king, and without uttering a groan, he boldly told him, that 300 young Romans like himself, had conspired

against his life, and entered the camp in disguise, determined either to destroy him or perish in the attempt. This extraordinary confession astonished Porsenna; he made peace with the Romans and retired from their city. Mutius obtained the surname of *Scævola*, because he had lost the use of his right hand by burning it in the presence of the Etrurian king.

MYSORE, a province in the south of India. The ancestor of the reigning family is said to have been the chief of a band of herdsmen, who emigrated from Gujerat, and were allowed to settle in Mysore. The first of this tribe was Vijaya, and his immediate successors are well known; but in 1507, Cham Raj took possession of the government. Tim Raj succeeded in 1548; Heera Cham Raj ruled from 1571 to 1576, and was succeeded by Raj Wadevar, who took possession of Srirangapatam in 1610. He died in 1617, and was succeeded by Cham Raj, who added considerably to the Mysore territories, and died in 1637. He was succeeded by Immadee Raj, who was poisoned by his prime minister. Cauty Reoy Narsa Raj was the next sovereign of Mysore, and reigned till 1650. He was succeeded by Dud Deo Raj, who made several conquests, and died in 1672. Chick Deo Raj ascended the throne in 1672, and among other accessions, acquired by purchase the town and fortress of Bangalore, and died in 1704. He was succeeded by Cauty Raj, his son, who being deaf and dumb, was called the *dumb rajah*. After a nominal reign of ten years, he died, and was succeeded by Dud Kishau Raj, who died after an inglorious reign in 1731. He was succeeded by Cham Raj, who was deposed, and imprisoned by his ministers in 1734. The Mysore ministers now chose a boy five years old, named Chick Kishan Raj, and the public business was distributed into three offices. Nimjeraje Dulwoy, one of the officers, marched a large Mysorean army to the aid of the British and Mohammed Ali in 1753; but as the promised bribe for this assistance was not complied with, he became their enemy, and besieged Trichinopoly, but was compelled to abandon

HISTORY.

It in consequence of the invasion of Mysore by an army of Mahrattas. From this period may be dated the decline of the ministers' power, the downfall of the Hindoo dynasty, and the succession of the Mahometan usurper Hyder Aly. In 1768, the Rajah Chick Kishen Deo died, and Nunje Raj, his son, succeeded him; he was murdered after five years reign, and was succeeded by Syama Raj. In 1767, the Mahrattas and the Nizam, aided by a British force, invaded Mysore. Hyder at length made peace with the Mahrattas, and concluded an alliance with the Nizam against the British. They were defeated by the British in an engagement on the 26th of September. The Nizam was glad to make peace. Hyder was pursued by General Smith, and fled to Madras, where he concluded a treaty of peace with the Madras government. In 1771, Mysore was invaded by an army of Mahrattas. The years 1773, 1774, 1775, and 1776, were devoted by Hyder to the disciplining of his army, and the gradual extension of his territories. In 1777, Cham, or Syama, the young Mysore rajah, died without issue. Upon this occasion, Hyder made choice of a boy lineally related to the royal family. This boy, whose name was also Cham, was the father of the present rajah. Hyder, having confederated with the Mahrattas and the Nizam to attack the British territories, entered the Carnatic in July, 1780. Notwithstanding Hyder was frequently defeated by the British forces, he overran the country, and left no part of it, with the exception of Madras, in the possession of his enemies. The death of Hyder took place in the city of Arcot, on the 7th of December, 1782, at the age of 64 years. At his decease, Hyder's dominions comprehended nearly 80,000 square miles; his revenue amounted to two millions

sterling; his army consisted 150,000 men; and his treasure contained several millions in bullion and specie. Tippoo Sultan, the eldest son of Hyder, succeeded to the empire of his father on the 2d of Jan. 1783. The invasion of the Malabar coast by the British compelled Tippoo to proceed to the defence of his own territory. He compelled General Matthews to capitulate. But under a false pretence that the public treasure had been robbed, he violated the articles of capitulation; he fettered the prisoners, and beheaded the general and several of the principal officers. The successes of the British in other parts compelled him to make peace. Accordingly, on the 11th of March, 1784, a treaty was concluded between Tippoo and the British. Tippoo now assumed the name of sultan, thereby throwing off all allegiance or dependence on the rajah of Mysore, or the emperor of Hindostan. In 1789, he invaded the territories of one of the British allies, which circumstance brought on the subsequent war; at the conclusion of which, in 1792, East Cornwallis compelled Tippoo Sultan to pay the sum of four millions of money, and to relinquish the half of his dominions. From the year 1796 to 1799, Tippoo was engaged in constant intrigues with the French and all the powers of Hindostan, in order to raise a confederacy against the British. He was detected by Lord Mornington (now Marquis Wellesley). War was determined on; the British forces, under General Harris, marched to Seringapatam; and on the 4th of May, 1799, put an end to the empire and life of Tippoo Sultan. Kirahna Odiaver, the son of the last rajah, is now in possession of the ancient capital of Mysore, but subject to the general superintendence of a British resident.

NABIS, a celebrated tyrant of Lacedæmon, who in all acts of cruelty and oppression surpassed a Phalaris or a Dionysius. Nabis made an alliance with Flaminius, the Roman general, and pursued with the most inveterate enmity the war which he had undertaken against the Achæans. He besieged Gythium, and defeated Philopœmen in a naval battle. His triumph was short; the general of the Achæans soon repaired his losses, and Nabis was defeated in an engagement, and treacherously murdered as he attempted to save his life by flight, B.C. 192, after an usurpation of 14 years.

NABONASSAR, the first king of the Chaldeans, or Babylonians, after the division of the Assyrian monarchy. The beginning of this new empire of the Chaldeans is very obscure; and all that we know concerning it is—That the Babylonians having revolted from the government of the Medes, who had overthrown the Assyrian monarchy, began under the conduct of Nabonassar, governor of the Medes, the foundation of a dominion, which was very much increased afterwards under Nebuchadnezzar. It seems most probable that this Nabonassar was the father of Merodach, or Berodach, whom Ptolemy calls Mardokempade, the same that sent ambassadors to Hecæiah.

NADIR SHAH.—(See *Persia*.)

NAEFELS, a town of Switzerland, where, in 1388, a body of Swiss, amounting to 400, repulsed a numerous body of Austrians, led on by Duke Leopold.

NAMUR, a city and bishopric of the Netherlands. In 1692, the strength of the place being discovered to the French by the treacherous Baron de Bresse, who, under pretence of being taken, deserted the Spanish service, Louis XIV., with 80,000 men besieged it: the town was taken after a few days resistance. While the French continued to besiege the castle, King William III., of Great Britain, marched, with 100,000 men,

to its relief: but the French, being advantageously posted, declined battle. His majesty, however, drove them from their posts, and attempted to pass the river by means of bridges; but, in the mean time, a great rain happening, swelled the river, carried down the bridges, prevented his attacking them, and gave them an opportunity to take the castle, which made but a feeble defence: and the greatest loss the French had was at Coehorn Fort, which was valiantly defended by Colonel Coehorn, its founder and governor, who was dangerously wounded. The fort was surrendered, and the castle not long after, but were retaken 1695.

NANKIN, a city of China, said to cover a larger extent of ground than any other city in the world. In 1645 its magnificent palace was destroyed by the Mantchou Tartars. Its principal ornament, the celebrated porcelain tower built 1411, A. D., is said to have cost 800,000*l.* sterling.

NANTZ (Edict of), passed by Henry IV., by which Protestants enjoyed toleration in France, 1598; revoked by Louis XIV. 1685; by this bad policy 50,000 French Protestants left France and came to England.

NAPLES, an extensive kingdom of the south-east of Italy. During the government of Pandulph II. as Prince of Benevento, A.D. 1003, the Normans first arrived in Italy, and established themselves in this country; and Landulphus V., the son of Pandulph, was expelled from the government by Richard I., the Norman Count of Aversa, who caused himself to be proclaimed Prince of Benevento. Thus the dominion of the Lombards in this principality terminated in A.D. 1059.—Richard was succeeded in the government of Benevento by Jordanus, Richard II., Robert, Richard III., Jordanna II., Robert II., and Roger, who assumed the title of king, and obtained the investiture of the dukedom of Naples. Some years after, Roger having taken Pope Innocent prisoner, obliged his holiness to

HISTORY.

confirm to him the title of king. To him succeeded William in 1154, William II. in 1166, Tancred, Count of Lecce, in 1190, Frederick in 1208, who enlarged and embellished the city of Naples, which he made the chief place of his residence; and Conrad in 1250. Four years after Conrad died, and was succeeded by Conradin, whose army was attacked and dispersed by Manfred. In 1253 Manfred assumed the crown of Sicily; and in 1266 was defeated and slain by the army of Charles of Anjou, on whom Pope Urban had conferred the title of king. Soon after Conradin laid claim to Sicily, and marched with an army into Italy, but was entirely defeated and taken prisoner by Charles, who caused him and the Duke of Austria to be publicly beheaded upon a scaffold in the market-place of Naples, A.D. 1269. Charles, by his arbitrary and oppressive government, so entirely lost the affections of the Sicilians, that they offered their allegiance to Peter, King of Arragon, who was soon after crowned at Palermo, and from this period the history of Naples is one unvaried and uninteresting detail of similar scenes of war and invasion, during nearly the space of two hundred years.—At length, after a long separation, Alphonsus of Arragon united both Sicily and Naples under his dominion. Upon the death of Ferdinand, Charles V. succeeded to Naples, as well as to the rest of the Spanish monarchy. During his reign, and that of his successors Philip II., Philip III., and Philip IV., this country was governed by the Viceroy of Spain, and suffered greatly from their oppression. On the death of Philip IV., A.D. 1664, Charles II. succeeded to the crown of Spain, and adopted Philip of Anjou, afterwards Philip V., as the heir of all his dominions.—In 1700 Philip succeeded to the crown of Naples and Sicily; but his title was opposed by the house of Austria, and a conspiracy procured the government of Naples for Charles III., son of the Emperor Leopold. However, by the conditions of the general peace, Naples again owned the sway of Philip in 1719; but Sicily was given to the Duke of Savoy. Some years after,

the emperor, Charles VI., again seized upon Naples, and by cession obtained also Sicily. He continued to reign over them for several years, till Don Carlos, being vested with the rights of his father, who was yet alive, conquered these two kingdoms in 1734, and fixed the seat of his government among his subjects. Don Carlos changed the face of his kingdoms, which, on his taking possession of the crown of Spain, he left in a flourishing condition to his son Ferdinand IV. In 1767 the Jesuits were expelled from Naples, and were all conveyed into the pope's dominions, the vicinity of whose territories rendered every scheme of opposition fruitless. During the invasion of Italy by the French, after some immaterial hostilities, a suspension of arms was agreed to between the King of Naples and the republican commander in 1796; and soon after a peace was concluded between the two powers, Naples being required to pay a sum of eight millions, either in money or in naval stores.—In 1798 the King of Naples commenced hostilities against the French, attacked the new Roman republic, and entered Rome in triumph; but, in the year following, he was obliged to conclude an armistice with the enemy on very hard conditions. Naples was reduced under the power of the French in 1799, who constituted it a republic, and established a provisional government. However, a few months afterwards, the great successes of the Austro-Russian army forced the French to evacuate Naples; and, by the aid of the English, the King of the Two Sicilies, who had hoisted his flag on board the *Fondroyant*, the English admiral's ship was enabled to return once more to his capital. But the victory of Bonaparte at Marengo, and the conditions of the treaty of Lunéville gave the French a great ascendancy in Italy.—In 1805 Bonaparte issued a proclamation, declaring that the Neapolitan dynasty had ceased to reign, and ordered his troops to subject the *whole* of Italy to his laws or those of his allies. In consequence of this, a French army, under the command of Joseph Bonaparte, entered Naples, and occupied all the principal fortresses in the

kingdom. The King of Naples and the royal family were obliged to seek an asylum in Sicily. Under the Prince of Hesse, Gaeta made a long and memorable defence against the French troops; and was taken only in consequence of that commander being badly wounded, and some of his officers proving treacherous.—On the translation of Joseph Bonaparte to the throne of Spain, in 1808, Joachim Murat, who had married a sister of Napoleon, was nominated to the kingdom of Naples.—After an extraordinary career, in which some of the martial talents and vigour of Murat were displayed, but were ill seconded by his troops, Naples was invested by land, whilst an English naval force entered its port, and compelled a surrender of the ships and arsenal. The Neapolitan commanders, and those of Austria and England, signed a convention, of which the prominent feature was the abdication of Joachim. Naples was occupied by the allies, who were joined by an armament of English and Sicilians; and Ferdinand IV., King of the Two Sicilies, after an absence of nine years, was restored in 1815.—Naples has suffered, at different periods, from earthquakes and eruptions of Vesuvius.

NAPOLÉON BONAPARTE, one of the most extraordinary characters recorded in history, and distinguished alike for his extraordinary fortunes, his civil talents, and his military genius. He was one of the numerous family of an advocate of Ajaccio, in Corsica, and born there, August the 15th, 1769. After receiving the rudiments of a classical education, he was entered into the military school at Brienne, where he was distinguished by the gravity of his character, and his sedulous study of mathematics. At sixteen he received the commission of second lieutenant in the regiment of Lafere, which he joined at Valence. At twenty, he was promoted to a captaincy. In December, 1793, he obtained the command of the artillery in the attack of Toulon, then occupied by the English, and contributed by the originality of his plans to the success of the operations. In 1794, he was commandant of the artillery in the

army to Italy, and so much distinguished himself, that in May, 1795, he was made a general of infantry. In 1798, when some of the sections of Paris rose in insurrection against the Convention, the command of the conventional troops was intrusted to him, and the facility with which he gained a victory, led to his being appointed commander-in-chief to the army of Italy, where he commenced his brilliant operations in April 1796. He successively defeated the Austrians and Piedmontese at Montenotte, Millesimo, Mondovi, and Lodi; forcing the King of Sardinia to make peace, and overrunning Lombardy, the Venetian States, Tuscany, the Papedom, and Naples, in spite of every exertion of the Austrians and other allies, during which he gained a series of brilliant and decisive victories, and compelled Austria in April, 1797, to make peace at Campo-Formio. In 1798, he took the command of an army destined against Egypt, and on his passage from Toulon, captured Malta, by the mere influence of his name. He afterwards landed at Alexandria, and overran Egypt and Syria, every where victorious except at Acre; where, for want of besieging artillery, he was repulsed by Sir Sydney Smith. In October, 1799, the misgovernment of France, and the successes of the Russians determined him to return with his principal officers; and being received as a saviour by the French nation, on the 9th of November he effected a revolution at Paris, and proclaimed himself first consul of the republic. After offers of peace to the confederates, which were rejected, he crossed the Alps with an army of recruits, and in June 1800, gained the Battle of Marengo, and re-acquired possession of Italy. A general peace was the consequence. In 1802, he was elected consul for life. And in May, 1804, he assumed the title of Napoleon I., Emperor of the French, and in Dec. 2, was crowned at Paris by the pope. Being also in March, 1805, declared King of Italy, and in May crowned at Milan. In Sept. 1805, the confederacy of European powers being renewed, he invaded Germany, and at Ulm captured 30,000 Austrians. In November he entered Vienna,

HISTORY.

and on Dec. 2, gained the battle of Austerlitz, over the emperors of Russia and Austria, after which, he concluded peace with Austria, creating the Electors of Bavaria and Wirtemberg kings, and making his elder brother, Joseph, King of Naples. In October 1806, he invaded Prussia; and on the 3d of that month, gained a decisive victory at Jena or Auerstadt, by which the whole Prussian monarchy, and Germany to the Baltic, came under his authority. On Nov. 20, he promulgated at Berlin the famous decree, by which he proposed to shut out the trade of Britain from all the ports of the continent. In June, 1807, having overrun Poland, he totally defeated the Emperor of Russia at Eylau and at Friedland; after which, an interview took place between them on a raft on the Niemen, followed by the treaty of Tilsit. In November of that year, he marched an army into Lisbon, driving the Portuguese court to the Brazils; and on Dec. 1, created his younger brother Jerome King of Westphalia. On May 1, 1808, Charles IV., of Spain, abdicated that kingdom in his favour; and his three sons being made prisoners at Bayonne, he proclaimed his brother Joseph King of Spain, and conferred the kingdom of Naples on his brother-in-law Murat. In September of the same year, he met the Emperor of Russia in amity at Erfurt; and they jointly proposed peace with England, which was rejected. In 1809, he headed an army into Spain, where his right wing pursued Sir John Moore to Corunna, while he marched to Madrid, and seated his brother on the Spanish throne; but in the mean time, the Austrians took the field, and Napoleon, at the head of the French armies, gained successive victories at Abensberg, Eckmühl, and Raabon. At Vienna he fought the drawn battle of Asperling; and, July 8th, gained a great victory at Wagram, forcing the Austrians for the third time to make peace with vast sacrifices. At the commencement of 1810, he married Maria Louisa, Archduchess of Austria, and might now be considered as master of the continent of Europe, his authority being no where disputed, except in some provinces of

Spain, whose resistance was supported by British armies. In 1812, he assembled a great army in Poland, and invaded Russia, and having at the Borodino, and at Moskwa, gained two bloody victories, he entered Moscow on the 14th of Sept.; but that city, being afterwards burned by the Russians, became untenable, and the French retreated for winter quarters towards Poland, but an early and unusual frost setting in during their march, they lost their horses, were compelled to abandon their artillery, and three-fourths of the army perished or were made prisoners. On which, Napoleon returned to Paris, and Poland and Prussia were occupied by the Russians. In April, 1813, he again took the field, and obtained the victories of Lutzen, Bautzen, and Wurtzen; but concluding an armistice, the Austrians and Bavarians joined the confederacy against him, and he was attacked at Leipsic by the combined armies of the European nations; being forced to abandon that city with immense loss, and retreat to Metz, thereby abandoning all his German conquests. In 1814, the confederates having passed the Rhine, penetrated, after various battles, to Paris, which, being surrendered by Marshals Marmont and Mortier, Napoleon concluded a treaty with the allies at Fontainebleau, by which he agreed to retire to the island of Elba, with various provisions for himself and family, none of which were respected; and on its being proposed at the congress of Vienna, early in 1815, to seize him at Elba and transfer him to St. Helena, he embarked with 600 of his guards and made a sudden descent on March 1st, in Provence. On the 10th he entered Lyons, and on the 20th Paris, in great popular triumph. On May 1st, he held the Meeting of the Champ de Mai, and in June joined the army on the Belgian frontier, where, on the 15th, he defeated Blücher at Ligny, and on the 16th, the Dutch and English at Quatre Bras; where he divided his army, sending the right wing under Grouchy, in pursuit of the Prussians, while with the remainder, he attacked the combined English, Belgian, and Hanoverian forces at Waterloo. The battle

terminating in the complete route of his army, he returned to Paris; where, finding treasons in the government, he reigned in disgust, in favour of his son, who was proclaimed accordingly. Having determined to sail for America, he went to Rochefort; but finding that port blockaded by an English squadron, he surrendered himself to the protection of England, on July 15, 1815; and being conveyed to Plymouth, was prohibited landing. On August 7, he was removed on board another ship, and conveyed, as had been formerly proposed, to St. Helena, where he was kept under rigid *surveillance* till the 9th of May, 1821, when he died, after a short illness, and was buried in that island.

NAPOLI DI ROMANIA, situate on the east-side of the Morea, upon a bay, to which it gives the denomination, in the province of Sacania, or Lesser Romania. In 1205, it was taken by the French and Venetians; and a little after King Giannoviza seized and plundered it. The Venetians bought it of Peter Cornaro's widow in 1383, and defended it gallantly against Mahomet II., in 1460, obliging him to raise the siege, as they did Solyman, 1537. In 1686, General Morosini, after he had taken Navarin and Modon, ordered General Coningsmark to possess himself of Mount Palamida, which is near the town, and commands it; and whilst he battered it from this place, General Morosini gave battle to the Serasquier, who came to relieve it; defeated him, and took Argos, their fleet, together with their King Ternis. The Serasquier advanced again with 1000 men, and fell upon the Venetians in their trenches, where the battle was dubious for three hours; but at last the Turks fled, General Coningsmark, the Princes of Brunswick and Turenne, signalizing themselves in the action. After the battle, the siege was pushed on with vigour, and the Turks, having capitulated, were conducted to Tenedos. The Venetians found in the castle 17 brass cannons, seven iron cannons, and one mortar.

NARBONNE, a city of France in Languedoc. It is one of the most ancient cities of that kingdom. In 459, the Visigoths besieged this city

in vain; but it was treacherously delivered to them in 462, by Count Agripiu. And in 732, the Saracens being admitted into the city as friends, took it from them, and slew all except the king. In 736, Charles Martel took it from the Saracens; since which it has been subject to the crown of France. The cathedral church is very ancient and famous, and is by some supposed to have been a metropolitan see, since the year 309. It is dedicated to St. Justus and St. Martyr, and renowned for its organs, and the history of the raising of Lazarus, painted by an eminent artist. The city is well fortified, and has only two gates. The Dukes of Septimania, were also Dukes of Narbonne; and the Earls of Toulouse, who succeeded them, used the same title; and the city and diocese was governed under them by viscounts. Gaston de Foix, King of Navarre, in 1466, bestowed the lordship of Narbonne upon John his second son, who married the sister of Lewis XII., by whom he had Gaston de Foix, killed at the battle of Ravenna in 1513. This Gaston exchanged the city and lordship of Narbonne with his uncle, for other lands, in 1507, by which means it became united to the crown of France.

NARSES, King of Persia, succeeded his father Varennes in 294. He conquered Mesopotamia and Armenia. Maximianus Galerius being sent against him by Diocletian, was repulsed, but afterwards he defeated the Persians, whom he laid under tribute. Narses died in 303.

NARVA, a town of European Russia, near which, in 1700, Charles XII. of Sweden, at the head of 9000 men obtained a decisive victory over 32,000 Russians, commanded by Peter the Great. The Russians stood the shock with great firmness; but after an engagement of three hours, their intrenchments were forced with immense slaughter, and Charles entered Narva in triumph.

NASEBY (Battle of), fought in 1645 between King Charles I. and the parliamentary forces. This decisive and well disputed engagement was fought with nearly equal forces on both sides. The king commanded in person, and displayed all the conduct of a prudent general and stout

soldier. Fairfax and Skippon were his opponents; and Cromwell behaved with his usual prudence and gallantry. The royal infantry was entirely discomfited; and, though the king cried aloud to the cavalry, "One charge more and we recover the day!" they could not be prevailed on to renew the combat, and the king was obliged to quit the field. The slain on the side of the parliament, however, exceeded those of the king. Among the spoils was found the king's cabinet, with copies of his letters to the queen, which, in point of delicacy, give us an exalted idea both of Charles's morals and genius.

NASSAU (House of), the principal branches of which proceed from Walramus and Otho: the first branch, which comes from Walramus, the father of the Emperor Adolphus, is subdivided into three others.—The second branch proceeds from Otho, who married Agnes, the Countess of Solines; and is subdivided into five others. The princes of the House of Nassau were strenuous assertors of liberty, and famous for their intrepidity, perseverance, and courage.—William of Nassau, Prince of Orange, so well known by the name of William I., Governor of Utrecht, Holland, and Zealand, succeeded to the principality of Orange in 1544. His distinguished conduct, not only drew upon him the eyes of all Europe, but immortalized his name in its annals. He was assassinated 1564.—His son: Philip William, succeeded him, and died without issue, 1613. In 1625, Maurice, who succeeded his brother Philip, died at the Hague. His successor was his brother, Henry Frederick, whose death happened in 1647, William of Nassau, the tenth of that name, succeeded his father, and died in 1650. William Henry of Nassau, well known by the title of William III., married Mary of England in 1677. In 1688 he came over into England at the invitation of many of the nobility, gentry, and clergy, and landed at Torbay, on the 5th of November. William and Mary were proclaimed King and Queen of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, on the 13th of February, 1689.

NATOLIA, or ASIA MINOR, comprehends the ancient provinces of

Lydia, Pamphylia, Pisidia, Lycaonia, Cilicia, Cappadocia, and Pontus, or Amasia; all of them territories celebrated in the Greek and Roman history; but now, through the Turkish indolence and tyranny, either forsaken, or a theatre of ruins.

NAVARRRE, a province of the north-east of Spain, is situated between Gascony, Bigorre, Arragon, Castile, and Biscay, and comprehends the Pyrenees within its boundaries.—About the year 758, the lords of Navarre associated, and chose for their chief Don Garcia Ximenes, of the ancient blood of Spain, who led them against the Saracen Infidels, and defeating them on several occasions, wrested Aisna out of their hands. His successors, denominated counts, were subjected by Charlemagne, who experienced in their country a great check at Roncevaux. In 836, Aznar rendered himself independent; and in 857, Don Garcia Ximenes possessed the title of king. His son, Don Fortunio Garcia, who succeeded him, governed his states with glory for many years, and ended his days in a monastery which he had erected.—In 994, Don Garcia Sanchez III., surnamed "the Quaker," gave the Moors under Almanzor several signal overthrows. His son, Don Sancho, surnamed "the Great," united Castile to Navarre in 1001; but after having extended his kingdom, he again reduced it by dividing it among his four sons. Don Garcia, of Navarre, perished in a battle against his brother Don Ferdinand of Castile; and Don Sancho IV., son to Don Garcia, was assassinated in 1076, by his brother Don Ramond. The King of Castile, uncle to the assassin, dismembered Biscay from Navarre, to which Don Sancho V. joined Arragon. Alphonso the Valiant leaving no posterity, the states chose Don Pedro Atarez, of the house of Arragon. He was succeeded, in 1150, by Don Sancho the Wise, who was followed by Don Sancho VII., surnamed the Strong, the Courageous, and the Recluse. This last prince left his states to Thibault, son to one of his sisters, who joined the crusaders, and undertook a journey to the Holy Land.—In 1253, Thibault II. engaged in the crusades with, St. Louis, and

and died on his return from the unfortunate expedition against Tunis. He was succeeded by his brother Henry, who left the crown to his daughter Donna Joanna, whom Philip the Fair espoused in 1284. Louis Hutin, the son of Joanna, succeeded to the thrones of France and Navarre. He left one daughter, named Joanna, to whom Navarre belonged; but Philip the Long and Charles the Fair assumed the title, to the prejudice of their niece. However, Philip of Valois renounced it, and restored it to Joanna, who married Philip, Count of Evreux, known by the name of Philip III. They left a numerous progeny, and the kingdom in a flourishing condition. Charles II. and Charles III., their son and grandson, reigned with reputations entirely different: the former being styled Charles the Bad, and the latter Charles the Noble and the Generous. This last prince left a daughter, named Donna Blanch, who married the infant Don Juan of Aragon in 1425. Don Carlos was persecuted by his father Don Juan, who banished him from Navarre, disinherited him, and conferred the kingdom on his youngest daughter Leonora, Countess of Foix. Thus Navarre fell to the house of Foix; but Leonora did not assume the title of queen till after the death of her father in 1479. She left the crown to her grandson, Phœbus, the issue of Gaston de Foix, her eldest son, and of Germaine of France, the daughter of Louis XI. This prince is supposed to have been poisoned. By his death, Navarre devolved to Catherine de Foix, his sister, who married Jean d'Albert, son of the Count of Perigord and Limoges. The impolitic conduct of Jean roused the indignation of Ferdinand of Arragon, who, in 1483, took Pampeluna and several strong places, and obliged the king and queen to fly. Indeed, he left them in possession of Lower Navarre, beyond the Pyreneese towards France, but annexed the rest of the kingdom to Castile, and by the authority of the states declared them for ever indivisible. Henry II., their son, married his daughter Joanna to Anthony Bourbon, duke of Vendôme, by whom she had Henry III., who being raised to the throne

of France, in 1589, united what still remained of the kingdom of Navarre to the French monarchy.

NAVARRE (Peter), a famous soldier in the 16th century, was a Biscayan of low extraction. The reputation he acquired recommended him to Gonsalvo de Cordova, who was employed in the war of Naples. The emperor recompensed him for his services by the grant of Alivito, whence he assumed the title of Count Pedro de Navarre. Being appointed to the command of a naval expedition against the Moors, he took Oran, Tripoli, and other places. On his return to Italy he served in the army, and was taken prisoner at the battle of Ravenna, in 1512. After continuing in France two years in hopes of being ransomed, he entered into the French service, and signalized himself on several occasions; but being sent to the succour of Genoa in 1522, he was taken prisoner by the imperialists, and conducted to Naples, where he was confined in the castle del Ovo. After the treaty of Madrid he regained his liberty, and in 1528 served under Lautrec, at the siege of Naples, but in the unfortunate retreat of that general, at Aversa, he was again captured, and sent the second time to del Ovo. The Prince of Orange, by command of the emperor, having ordered a number of prisoners to be beheaded, barbarously included Navarre in the direction; but the governor, possessing more humanity, passed him over, and he died there soon after. Some pretend that he was strangled in the citadel.

NAXERA, a town in Spain, where in 1356, a battle was fought between Peter the Cruel, assisted by the Black Prince, and Henry, brother of Peter, assisted by the French, in which the former were victorious.

NAXOS, now *Naxia*, a celebrated island in the *Ægean sea*, the largest and most fertile of all the Cyclades. The Naxians were anciently governed by kings, but they afterwards exchanged this form of government for a republic, and enjoyed their liberty till the age of Pisistratus, who appointed a tyrant over them. They were reduced by the Persians; but in the expedition of Darius and Xerxes against Greece, they revolted and

HISTORY.

fought on the side of the Greeks. During the Peloponnesian war, they supported the interest of Athens. The capital was also called Naxos; and near it, on the 20th September, B.C. 377, the Lacedæmonians were defeated by Chabrias.

NAZAN-LEOD was a valiant general of the Britons against the Saxons. In 508 he fought a desperate battle against Cerdic, King of the West Saxons, and was at first victorious; but at last was defeated, losing his own life and 5000 of his army,—by which Hants, Dorset, Wilts, Berks, and the Isle of Wight, were added to the territories of the Saxons.

NEBUCHADNEZZAR I. or *Nabuchodonosor*, king of Nineveh and Babylon. He is supposed to be the same with Nabopolassar, governor of Babylon, who founded the kingdom of Nineveh. He sent Holophernes against Judea, who was slain by Judith.

NEBUCHADNEZZAR II. king of Assyria and Babylon, is supposed to have been the son of the preceding. He invaded Judea, took Jerusalem, and carried the treasures of the temple, and a number of captives, to Babylon. After this, he set up a golden statue in the plain of Dura, which he commanded all his subjects to adore, on pain of being cast into a fiery furnace. Three young Jews, named Shadrach, Meshach, and Abednego, refused to submit to this idolatry, and the sentence was executed upon them; but they were preserved amidst the flames. Having lost his senses, he became an outcast from the society of men, and lived among wild beasts in the forest; but on recovering his reason, he again ascended the throne, and died, B.C. 562, after reigning 43 years.

NEBUZAR-ADAN, a general of Nebuchadnezzar's armies, who conducted the siege of Jerusalem, and took the city, while Nebuchadnezzar was in Syria. Four years after this, while Nebuchadnezzar was at the siege of Tyre, Nebuzar-Adan brought to Babylon 745 captives more. He afterwards marched against the Ammonites, wasted the country, and brought their king and princes to Babylon.

NECHO, king of Egypt, called in

scripture, *Pharaoh Necho*, succeeded his father, Psammetichus, B.C. 616. He undertook to make a canal from the Nile to the Arabian gulf, which undertaking he was forced to abandon, after losing a great number of men. The ships of Necho sailed from the Red Sea, round the coast of Africa, into the Mediterranean; and returned to Egypt, after a voyage of three years. This monarch invaded Assyria, and on his march was attacked by Josiah, king of Judah, who was slain in the battle. The King of Egypt was defeated in his turn by Nebuchadnezzar, and obliged to return to his own country, where he died, B.C. 609.

NECTANEBUS, and **NECTANABIS**, a king of Egypt, who defended his country against the Persians, and was succeeded by Tachos, B.C. 363. His grandson, of the same name, made an alliance with Agesilaus, king of Sparta; and with his assistance he quelled a rebellion of his subjects. Some time after he was joined by the Sidonians, Phœnicians, and inhabitants of Cyprus, who had revolted from the King of Persia. This powerful confederacy was soon attacked by Darius, the king of Persia, who marched at the head of his troops. Nectanebus, to defend his frontiers against so dangerous an enemy, levied 20,000 mercenary soldiers in Greece, the same number in Libya, and 60,000 were furnished in Egypt. This numerous body was not equal to the Persian forces; and Nectanebus, defeated in a battle, gave up all hopes of resistance, and fled into Æthiopia, B.C. 350, where he found a safe asylum. His kingdom of Egypt became from that time tributary to the King of Persia.

NEELGORIND, a fortress and district of India, taken from the Marhattas, in 1783, by Tippoo Sultan, by capitulation; the terms of which the tyrant broke, and kept the governor a prisoner during his life. It was retaken by the Marhattas in 1791, and now forms part of the British territories.

NELSON (Horatio, Viscount), a gallant admiral, was the fourth son of the Rev. Mr. Nelson, rector of Burnham Thorpe in Norfolk, where Horatio was born Sept. 29, 1758. At the age of twelve years he was

taken to sea by his maternal uncle, Captain Suckling, of the *Raisable* man-of-war. In 1773 a voyage was undertaken for the discovery of a north-west passage. Our young seaman distinguished himself in that perilous voyage by his skill, courage, and promptitude. Soon after his return he was appointed to a station in the *Seahorse*, in which he sailed to the East Indies. He passed for a lieutenant in 1777, and received his commission as second of the *Lowestoff* frigate; in which he cruised against the Americans. In 1779 he obtained the rank of post captain, and was appointed to the command of the *Hinchinbrooke*, with which he sailed to the West Indies, and while there essentially contributed to the taking of Fort Juan in the gulf of Mexico. We find him next commanding the *Boreas*, having under him the Duke of Clarence, who was captain of the *Pegasus*. While thus engaged he married the daughter of William Woodward, Esq., judge of the Island of Nevis, and the widow of Dr. Nesbit, a physician of that island, by whom he never had any issue. On the breaking out of the war with France he was nominated to the *Agamemnon* of 64 guns, on board of which he sailed to the Mediterranean, and was present at the taking possession of Toulon. He was also present at the siege of Bastia, where he served at the batteries with a body of seamen; as he afterwards did at Calvi; and while employed before that place he lost an eye. He was so active on that station that his name was dreaded throughout the Mediterranean. He was with Admiral Hotham in the action with the French fleet, March 15, 1795; and the same year he took the island of Elba. In 1796 he was appointed commodore on board *La Minerve*, in which frigate he captured *La Sabine*, a forty gun ship. Soon after this he despatched the Spanish fleet, and steered with the intelligence to Sir John Jervis off St. Vincent. He had scarcely communicated the news, and shifted his flag on board the *Captain* of 74 guns, when the enemy hove in sight. A close action ensued, which terminated in a complete victory on the side of the British, who were inferior in numbers. On this occa-

sion Commodore Nelson attacked the *Santissima Trinidad* of 136 guns; and afterwards he boarded and took the *San Nicolas* of 80 guns, from whence he proceeded in the same manner to the *San Josef* of 112 guns; both of which surrendered to him. For his share in this glorious victory, the commodore was honoured with the order of the Bath; and having soon afterwards hoisted his flag as rear admiral of the blue, he was appointed to command the inner squadron at the blockade of Cadiz. He there made a bold but unsuccessful attempt to bombard the city, heading his men himself. The next exploit in which he was engaged was an attempt to take possession of Teneriffe, which design also failed, with the loss of Captain Bowen of the *Terpsichore*. In this expedition Admiral Nelson lost his right arm by a cannon shot, and was carried off to the boat by his son-in-law Captain Nesbit, on his back. He now returned to England for the recovery of his health, and received the grant of a pension of 1000*l.* a-year. The brave admiral, however, did not long remain inactive: he rejoined Earl St. Vincent, who, on receiving intelligence of the sailing of Bonaparte from Toulon, detached Sir Horatio Nelson with a squadron in pursuit of him. After exploring the coast of Italy, this indefatigable commander steered for Alexandria, where to his great mortification not a French ship was to be seen. He then sailed to Sicily, and having taken in a fresh supply of water, and obtained more correct information, returned to Alexandria, which he despatched August 1, 1798, at noon. The enemy were discovered in Aboukir Bay, lying at anchor in line of battle; and supported by strong batteries on an island, and strengthened by gun-boats. Notwithstanding this formidable appearance, the British admiral made the signal for battle; and, by a masterly and bold manœuvre, gave directions for part of his fleet to lead inside the enemy, who were thus exposed between two fires. The contest was hot and bloody. Several of the French ships were soon dismasted; and, at last the admiral's ship *P.Orient* of 120 guns took fire, and blew up. The firing, however, continued, but

HISTORY.

by the dawn of day only two sail of the line were discovered with their colours flying, all the rest having struck. Soon after this he sailed for Sicily, and from thence to Naples, where he quelled a rebellion, and restored the king. Having performed these and other important services, Lord Nelson returned to England, and was received with enthusiastic joy. A confederacy of the northern powers having alarmed the government, he was employed to dissolve it. A fleet was fitted out, the command of which was given to Admiral Sir Hyde Parker, assisted by Lord Nelson. On their arrival off the Cattigat, and being refused a passage, Lord Nelson offered his services for conducting the attack on the Danish force, which was stationed to oppose an entrance. This being accepted, he shifted his flag to the *Elephant*, and passed the Sound with little loss. On the 2d of April the action commenced at ten o'clock, and after a sharp conflict seventeen sail of the Danes were sunk, burnt, or taken. A negotiation was then entered into between his lordship and the Crown Prince; in consequence of which the admiral went ashore, and an armistice was settled. Having accomplished these great objects, he returned to England, and was created a viscount. In August 1801, he bombarded the enemy's flotilla of gunboats at Boulogne, but without any material effect. A treaty suddenly taking place, his lordship retired, but hostilities recommencing he sailed for the Mediterranean, and in March 1803 took the command of that station on board the *Victory*. Notwithstanding all his vigilance, the French fleet escaped from Toulon, and was joined by that of Cadiz; of which being apprised, he pursued them to the West Indies with a far inferior force. The combined squadrons, however, struck with terror, returned without effecting any thing; and, after a partial action with Sir Robert Calder off Ferrol, re-entered Cadiz. Admiral Nelson returned to England, but soon set sail to join his fleet off Cadiz. The French under Admiral Villeneuve, and the Spaniards under Gravina, ventured out with a number of troops on board, October 19, 1805, and on the 21st, about noon, the

action began off Cape Trafalgar. Lord Nelson ordered his ship the *Victory* to be carried alongside his old antagonist, the *Santissima Trinidad*, where he was exposed to a severe fire of musketry; and, not having the precaution to cover his coat, which was decorated with his star and other badges of distinction, he became an object for the riflemen placed purposely in the tops of the *Bucentaur*, which lay on his quarter. A shot from one of these entered just below his shoulder, of which he died in about two hours. In this action the enemy's force consisted of thirty-three ships of the line, and several of extraordinary magnitude; while the British were only twenty-seven. After the fall of Lord Nelson, the command devolved on Admiral Collingwood, by whose bravery and skill a complete victory was obtained. The remains of Lord Nelson were interred with great pomp in St. Paul's cathedral, January 9, following.

NEOPTOLEMUS, a king of Epirus, son of Achilles and Deidamia, called *Pyrrhus*, from the yellow colour of his hair. He was carefully educated under the eye of his mother, and gave early proofs of his valour. After the death of Achilles, Calchas declared in the assembly of the Greeks, that Troy could not be taken, without the assistance of the son of the deceased hero. Immediately upon this, Ulysses and Phoenix were commissioned to bring Pyrrhus to the war. He returned with them with pleasure, and received the name of Neoptolemus, (*new soldier*), because he had come late to the field. On his arrival before Troy, he paid a visit to the tomb of his father, and wept over his ashes. He afterwards, according to some authors, accompanied Ulysses to Lemnos, to engage Philoctetes to come to the Trojan war. He greatly signalized himself during the remaining time of the siege, and he was the first who entered the wooden horse. He was inferior to none of the Grecian warriors in valour, and Ulysses and Nestor alone could claim a superiority over him in eloquence, wisdom, and address. His cruelty however was as great as that of his father. Not satisfied with breaking down the gates of Priam's palace, he

spared the life of those to whom he was indebted for the empire, and whom his honour commanded him to defend. His seeming submission was unavailing, and he was at last obliged to surrender to the fury of his soldiers, some of his friends and supporters. The infirmities of his age, and his natural timidity, at last obliged him to provide himself against any future mutiny or tumult, by choosing a worthy successor. He had many friends and relations, but he did not consider the aggrandizement of his family, and he chose for his son and successor, Trajan, a man of whose virtues and greatness of mind he was fully convinced. This voluntary choice was approved by the acclamations of the people, and the wisdom and prudence which marked the reign of Trajan showed how discerning was the judgment, and how affectionate were the intentions of Nerva for the good of Rome. He died on the 27th of July, A. D. 98, in his 72d year, and his successor showed his respect for his merit and his character by raising him altars and temples in Rome, and in the provinces, and by ranking him in the number of the gods. Nerva was the first Roman emperor who was of foreign extraction, his father being a native of Crete.

NESLE, a small city of France, in the territory of Santerre in Picardy. Charles the Hardy, duke of Burgundy, took Nesle by storm in 1472, and because the inhabitants had killed one of his heralds, who was sent to summon them to surrender, and two other of his men during a cessation of arms, he exercised great cruelty against them, insomuch that the respect of holy altars did not save those who had fled into the churches, and those who escaped the fury of the soldiers, were either hanged or had their hands cut off.

NESTOR, a son of Neleus and Chloris, and nephew to Pelias. He had eleven brothers, who were all killed, with his father, by Hercules. His tender age detained him at home, and was the cause of his preservation. The conqueror spared his life, and placed him on the throne of Pylos. He married Eurydice, the daughter of Clymenes, or, according to others, Anaxibia, the daughter of Atreus.

He early distinguished himself in the field of battle. As king of Pylos and Messenia he led his subjects to the Trojan war, where he distinguished himself among the rest of the Grecian chiefs by eloquence, address, wisdom, justice, and an uncommon prudence of mind. Homer displays his character as the most perfect of all his heroes; and Agamemnon exclaims, that if he had ten generals like Nestor, he should soon see the walls of Troy reduced to ashes. After the Trojan war, Nestor retired to Greece, where he enjoyed, in the bosom of his family, the peace and tranquillity which were due to his wisdom and to his old age. The manner and the time of his death are unknown; the ancients are all agreed that he lived three generations of men, which length of time some suppose to be 300 years, though more probably only 90, allowing 30 years for each generation. From that circumstance, therefore, it was usual among the Greeks and the Latins, when they wished a long and happy life to their friends, to wish them to see the years of Nestor.

NETHERLANDS, a kingdom in the central part of Europe, constituted in 1814, and consisting of 17 provinces, with the grand duchy of Luxembourg. The earliest accounts of the Netherlands are from the Romans, by whom all the southern and central part (called Belgia) was kept in subjection till the decline of their empire in the fifth century. It was formerly like Holland, under the government of counts and earls, but being incorporated with the extensive possessions of the duke of Burgundy, the Netherlands passed to Maximilian of Austria, father of Charles V., who united the 17 provinces into one state, but the bigotry of his son Philip II. produced the separation of the Dutch provinces, and great dissension and distress in the others. They remained under the Spanish crown until the middle of the 17th century, when arduous exertions were made by Conde and Turenne to add them to the dominions of Louis XIV. The quadruple alliance, concluded at the Hague in 1688, however, put a stop to their progress, but the wars from 1672 to 1679, and 1689 to 1697, were prosecuted chiefly for the Nether-

HISTORY.

lands. At length, in 1702, Louis obtained them, but the French being defeated by the duke of Marlborough at the battle of Ramillies, in 1706, the Netherlands were brought under the power of the allies, and assigned to Austria at the peace of Utrecht. A peace ensued until the war of 1741 was transferred to the Netherlands, and the French under Marshal Saxe recovered them. Bergen-op-Zoom was captured by the French in September 1747, and Maestricht in the following year, when the successes of the British navy, and the persevering aspect of the coalition led to the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748, and the Netherlands thus became restored to Austria. By the treachery of Austria in 1756 they were once more nearly ceded to France, but the scheme was not carried into effect. In the campaign of 1792 Austria again lost the Netherlands, and though recovered in 1793, they again passed over to France in 1794. The hope of recovering them was the cause of the coalition of 1799 and 1805, both baffled in their object. The disasters of the French army in Russia in 1812, at length, opened the long-wished-for prospect. In 1813, Germany occupied all the exertions of the allies, but in 1814 the Netherlands were detached by a consequence of the revolution by which the Bourbons were restored; and the British cabinet accomplished the union of the seventeen provinces, and their erection into an independent state, under the Prince of Orange, in 1815. The prince, therefore, assumed the title of king of the Netherlands, and grand duke of Luxembourg.

NEUMARKT, a town of Bavaria, where, on the 23d August, 1796, the French met with the first of that series of defeats which led to their retreat across the Rhine.

NEVIL (RICHARD) Earl of Salisbury, took part with Richard, duke of York, who at that time aspired to the crown; and in 36 Henry VI. defeated the king's forces at St. Albans, accompanied the duke with a great force to London to treat of a reconciliation; afterward he defeated Sir James Audley and the king's forces at Bloreheath, near Drayton, in Shropshire. In the 38th of Henry VI., the old soldiers having deserted

the Duke of York; he fled to Calais, and was attainted in the parliament held at Coventry: but adventuring again with the Duke of York into England, and obtaining a signal victory against the Lancastrians at Northampton, he was made lord great chamberlain of England; but a little after he was taken in a battle against the Lancastrians near Wakefield, his son sir Thomas slain, he himself was beheaded, and his head set on a pole over one of the gates of York.

NEVIL'S-CROSS, near Durham, was the site of a battle between David I., king of Scotland, and the forces of Edward III., in 1346. King David, after a gallant contest, was made prisoner, and thus he and the king of France were captives to Edward at the same time.

NEWBURY, a town in Berkshire, said to have risen from the *Spinæ* of the Romans, and remarkable for two battles fought there between the parliament army and that of the royalists, commanded by Charles I. in person.

NEUHAUSEL, city of Hungary. It stands upon the river Neutra or Nitrach, two leagues from Komorra, and eleven east of Presburg: it is little, but strong and well situated, and capital of a large country. The Turks made themselves masters of it in 1663, but it was retaken the nineteenth of August 1685 by general Caprara, under the duke of Lorraine, after a siege of forty days, and all the garrison put to the sword. There were 100 brass cannons found in it, with plate and other booty, to the value of two millions.

NEW HAMPSHIRE, a country of North America, was discovered by the English in 1614. Grants of land in this country were made to Captain John Mason, and Sir Ferdinand Gorges, in 1621-3; which grants were a fruitful source of disquiet to the province for many years. When Mason died, the confusion occasioned by the civil wars in England, prevented his heirs from obtaining a legal recognition of their claim. As soon as Charles II. was restored to the throne, Robert Mason, the grandson of the original patentee, preferred a complaint against Massachusetts for usurping jurisdiction over this property. And, though the king de-

elided in favour of Mason, the state of Massachusetts resisted the claim. This obstinacy was the occasion of many vexations and invidious practices, in which Edward Cranfield, the appointed governor of the province, was a principal actor. The proceedings of Cranfield in favour of Mason, were at length, however, declared illegal; and he resigning in 1686, new schemes of oppression and tyranny were meditated, and acted on, against the people of New Hampshire. The long-protracted contest of Mason and his heirs, did not end till 1747; when the assembly purchased their interest. Since the adoption of the federal constitution, nothing of historical importance has occurred in New Hampshire.

NEW JERSEY, a country of North America, the period of the first European settlements, in which is not clearly ascertained. In 1664, Charles II. granted to his brother, a patent for this district, which he sold to Lord Berkley, and Sir George Carteret. Lord Cornbury, cousin to Queen Anne, was for some time royal governor of New Jersey, as well as of New York. The last royal governor of New Jersey, was William Temple Franklin, a son of the celebrated Benjamin Franklin.

NEW SPAIN, or MEXICO, was discovered by Fernando Cortez in 1519. Cortez, with a very small force, first entered the state of Tlascala, where he met with great opposition. They next advanced against Cholula, where he was treacherously received, and to avenge himself, massacred 6,000 of the natives. At a short distance from the entrance into the city of Mexico they were met by Montezuma at the head of his nobles, and surrounded by his guards and courtiers. Cortez was received by the emperor with hospitality and confidence which he soon forfeited: for having learnt that a traditional prophecy was current that a powerful nation, children of the sun, would chastise the country for the punishment of their sins, he readily turned the idea to his own advantage. He came to the determination of seizing Montezuma in his palace, which he entered with ten officers and soldiers. He requested Montezuma to take up a temporary residence with the Spa-

niards, to which demand he reluctantly consented. Here he suffered very ill-treatment; and Cortez, on a frivolous and faithless pretext that the monarch was the instigator of some tumults, ordered him to be fettered and thrown into prison.

Montezuma remained a prisoner six months, during which period Cortez was actively employed in furthering his own views. Montezuma now acknowledged himself in form a vassal of the Spanish king, and sent to Cortez his tokens of homage; in the mean time Cortez meets with an opponent in the person of Velasquez, the commander of the expedition sent against Cortez from Cuba. Cortez was consequently obliged to quit Mexico, leaving a small force to guard Montezuma and his capital. He gained a complete victory over the army of Velasquez; he returned immediately, and entered Mexico without molestation, but was attacked in his fortress with great vigour. Having been twice wounded, and forced to retreat, he placed Montezuma in view of his enraged subjects that he might pacify them, but in vain. The forlorn monarch was pierced by an arrow, and died broken-hearted and despairing. After his death, Cortez marched for the Tlascalcan territories. Having received a reinforcement of 10,000 Indians, he again marched for Mexico. At this juncture, receiving supplies of arms and ammunition from his paniola, he immediately attacked the city in the east, west, and south. Guatimozin, the new emperor, defended it with undaunted courage; but after a siege continued with vigour twenty-five days, the town capitulated on the 21st of August, 1521. The remaining provinces of the Mexican empire yielded without much opposition to the Spanish conquerors.

The first Viceroy of New Spain arrived in 1535. From this period to the year 1808, Mexico was governed by a succession of fifty viceroys. The annals of Mexico, from the conquest to the beginning of the present century, are remarkably devoid of interest. The revolutionary spirit which manifested itself in the other Spanish provinces spread into Mexico in 1811, and produced an im-

HISTORY.

urrection, which was, however, after great bloodshed, quelled in February, 1821, a glorious and effectual revolution took place, which was ended in the acknowledgment of the independence of Mexico, by Don Juan O'Donoghue, who had been recently appointed captain-general of New Spain by the Spanish government.—The viceroyalty of New Spain extends over several provinces which were not subject to the Mexicans. The countries of Oaxaca and Sonora that stretch along the east side of the Gulf of California, as well as the immense kingdoms of New Navarre and New Mexico, which bend towards the west and north, are reduced, some to a greater, others to a less, degree of subjection to the Spanish yoke. The peninsula of California was discovered by Cortes in 1536, but the Spaniards have made little progress in peopling it. On the east of Mexico, Yucatan and Honduras are comprehended in the government of New Spain.

NEW YORK, one of the united states of North America, the earliest effectual settlement in which, was made by the Dutch; but their jurisdiction was soon interrupted, and compelled to submit to the English government. They were, however, the next year, restored to authority. But the entire Dutch government, in North America, some years afterwards, passed away. A considerable force, under Colonel Nichols, arrived in the harbour of New York in 1664, and summoned the province to surrender to the British crown. Governor Stuyvesant determined to make all the defence of which the place was capable; but he was, at length, obliged to yield. The English forces took possession, first of the town of New York, and afterwards of Fort Orange, which last received the name of Albany. By these and other conquests, the English jurisdiction was extended, and connected over New York and New Jersey. In 1673, the Dutch again obtained a short-lived ascendancy. In the treaty of peace of 1674, between Holland and England, a cession of the whole territory was made to the latter. The English revolution was productive of great advantages to New York. In 1690, a sudden attack was made upon the

town of Schenectady, near Albany; and an indiscriminate massacre of the inhabitants took place. The people of this colony opposed a strenuous resistance to the stamp act in 1765, and to the subsequent measures of the British government. The declaration of independence was assented to by the New York delegates in congress; but many of the principal inhabitants were inclined to favour the royal cause. The state generally was the theatre of hostilities during the greater part of the war. (See *United States*).

NEY (Marshal), prince of the Moskwa, one of the most renowned generals of the French revolution, and of the wars of Napoleon. He was born in Alsace, about 1776, and rose from the ranks to the chief command of armies, but was more distinguished for his bravery than his tactics. He opposed Wellington in Spain, and pursued the British army to the lines of Torres Vedras, during which he gave mortal offence to the British general. He afterwards served under Napoleon in Russia, and at the great battle of the Moskwa acquired the name of "the bravest of the brave." At the return of Napoleon from Elba, the command of the royalist army was confided to him, but being threatened with the desertion of his troops, he went over to the emperor. For this he was tried on the second return of the Bourbons, condemned, and shot.

NICAUSIS, or, according to the Arabians, BALKIS, queen of Sheba, who visited Solomon upon the report of his wisdom. Her country was probably that part of Arabia Felix which was inhabited by the Sabæans; but Josephus pretends that she reigned over Egypt and Ethiopia.

NICEPHORUS I., emperor of the east, was chancellor of the empire, but took the throne, in 802, from the empress Irene, whom he banished to the isle of Mitylene. The first part of his reign was auspicious; but afterwards he committed such cruelties that his subjects revolted, and proclaimed Bardanes, surnamed the Turk, emperor. Bardanes, however, was defeated, and sent to a monastery, where he was deprived of his eyes. The Bulgarians having invaded the empire, and ravaged Thrace, N-

cephorus marched against them, but was vanquished and slain, A. D. 811.

NICEPHORUS II. (Phocas), a nobleman of Constantinople, who was raised to the imperial seat in 963. He married the widow of his predecessor, Romanus the Younger, and drove the Saracens out of a great part of Asia. He was assassinated by John Zimisces and other conspirators, in 969.

NICEPHORUS III. was invested with the purple by the army which he commanded in 1077. He was, however, deposed in 1081, by his general Alexis Comnenus who sent him to a convent, where he died shortly after.

NICIAS, an Athenian general, celebrated for his valour and for his misfortunes. He early conciliated the good will of the people by his liberality, and he established his military character by taking the island of Cythera from the power of Lacedæmon. When Athens determined to make war against Sicily, Nicias was appointed, with Alcibiades and Lamachus, to conduct the expedition, which he reprobated as impolitic, and as the future cause of calamities to the Athenian power. In Sicily he behaved with great firmness, but he often blamed the quick and inconsiderate measures of his colleagues. The success of the Athenians remained long doubtful. Alcibiades was recalled by his enemies to take his trial, and Nicias was left at the head of affairs. Syracuse was surrounded by a wall, and, though the operations were carried on slowly, yet the city would have surrendered, had not the sudden appearance of Gylippus, the ~~Greek~~ ally of the Sicilians, cheered up the courage of the besieged at the most critical moment. Gylippus proposed terms of accommodation to the Athenians, which were refused; some battles were fought, in which the Sicilians obtained the advantage, and Nicias at last, tired of his ill success, and grown desponding, demanded of the Athenians a reinforcement or a successor. Demosthenes, upon this, was sent with a powerful fleet; but the advice of Nicias was despised, and the admiral, by his eagerness to come to a decisive engagement, ruined his fleet and the interest of Athens. The fear of his enemies at home pre-

vented Nicias from leaving Sicily; and when, at last, a continued series of ill success obliged him to comply, he found himself surrounded on every side by the enemy, without hope of escaping. He gave himself up to the conquerors with all his army, but the assurances of safety which he had received soon proved vain and false, and he was no sooner in the hands of the enemy than he was shamefully put to death with Demosthenes. His troops were sent to quarries, where the plague and hard labour diminished their numbers and aggravated their misfortunes. Some suppose that the death of Nicias was not violent. He perished about 413 years before Christ; and the Athenians lamented in him a great and valiant, but unfortunate, general.

NICOLAS I. Pope, surnamed The Great, was a Roman, and succeeded Benedict III., the 24th of April, 858. He boldly withstood the Emperor Michael III., who had deposed Ignatius, patriarch of Constantinople, and put Photius into his place. He excommunicated also John, archbishop of Ravenna, but afterwards restored him. He was a strenuous assertor and promoter of the celibacy of priests; but was therein vigorously opposed by Huldericus, bishop of Augsburg, so that notwithstanding the Pope's endeavours, the priests had liberty of matrimony allowed them for 200 years after. He was a zealous maintainer of the pontifical authority, and wrote a vast number of epistles. He died 867.

NICOLAS II., called Gerard the Burgundian, a Frenchman, succeeded Stephen IX., in 1059, and at the same time the count of Frescati set up Johan. Nincius, bishop of Velitri, who took upon him the name of Benedict X; but Nicolas condemned him in a council held at Sutri. He died 1061, after having governed the church two years and six months.

NICOLAS III., of the family of the Ursini, called Johan. Cajetan, succeeded to John XXI., the see having been vacant six months and four days; he was chosen at Viterbo, the 25th November, 1277; he was learned and a favourer of learning, and was of such a prudent behaviour, that before his coming to the papacy he was commonly called Cardinalis Com-

HISTORY.

positus, the composed or grave cardinal. Many popish writers accuse this pope of having been too forward in promoting and enriching his relations; and for his unjust persecuting of Charles of Anjou, king of Sicily, and of having been the author of the massacre of the French in Sicily, called the Sicilian Vespers.

NICOLAS V., cardinal bishop of Bologna, was elected pope after Eugenius IV. in 1447. He restored peace to the church and to Europe, and celebrated on that account a jubilee at Rome in 1450. His death is supposed to have been occasioned by grief for the misfortunes of the Greeks, 1455.

NICOMEDES I., a king of Bithynia, about 278 years before the Christian era. It was by his exertions that this part of Asia became a monarchy. He behaved with great cruelty to his brothers, and built a town which he called by his own name, *Nicomedia*. — The Second, was ironically surnamed *Philopater*, because he drove his father Prusias from the kingdom of Bithynia, and caused him to be assassinated, B. C. 149. He reigned 59 years. Mithridates laid claim to his kingdom, but all their disputes were decided by the Romans, who deprived Nicomedes of the province of Paphlagonia, and his ambitious rival of Cappadocia. He gained the affections of his subjects by a courteous behaviour, and by a mild and peaceful government. — The Third, son and successor of the preceding, was dethroned by his brother Socrates, and afterwards by the ambitious Mithridates. The Romans re-established him on his throne, and encouraged him to make reprisals upon the King of Pontus. He followed their advice, and he was, at last, expelled another time from his dominions, till Sylla came into Asia, who restored him to his former power and affluence. — The Fourth of that name, was son and successor of Nicomedes III. He passed his life in an easy and tranquil manner, and enjoyed the peace which his alliance with the Romans had procured him. He died B. C. 75, without issue, and left his kingdom, with all his possessions, to the Roman people.

NIEUPORT (Battle of), was fought on the 2d of July, 1690, between

prince Maurice, stadtholder of Holland, and Albert of Austria, governor of the Spanish Netherlands, in which the former was victorious. The confederates, under Maurice, consisting of English, Scotch, German, and French; and this battle is remarkable for its operations having been conducted, on the side of Maurice, partly on land and partly on water.

NIGER (C. Pescennius Justus), a celebrated governor in Syria, well known by his valour in the Roman armies, while yet a private man. At the death of Pertinax he was declared emperor of Rome, and his claims to that elevated situation were supported by a sound understanding, prudence of mind, moderation, courage, and virtue. He proposed to imitate the actions of the venerable Antoninus, of Trajan, of Titus, and M. Aurelius. He was remarkable for his fondness for ancient discipline, and never suffered his soldiers to drink wine, but obliged them to quench their thirst with water and vinegar. He forbade the use of silver and gold utensils in his camp, all the bakers and cooks were driven away, and the soldiers ordered to live, during the expedition they undertook, merely upon biscuits. In his punishments Niger was inexorable: he condemned ten of his soldiers to be beheaded in the presence of the army, because they had stolen and eaten a fowl. The sentence was heard with groans: the army interfered; and when Niger consented to diminish the punishment for fear of kindling a rebellion, he yet ordered the criminals to make each a restoration of ten fowls to the person whose property they had stolen; they were, besides, ordered not to light a fire the rest of the campaign, but to live upon cold aliments, and to drink nothing but water. Such great qualifications in a general seemed to promise the restoration of ancient discipline in the Roman armies, but the death of Niger frustrated every hope of reform. Severus, who had also been invested with the imperial purple, marched against him; some battles were fought, and Niger was, at last, defeated, A. D. 194. His head was cut off, and fixed to a long spear, and carried in triumph through the streets of Rome. He reigned about one year.

NILE (Battle of), sometimes called

Aboukir, August 1, 1798, between the British, under Admiral Nelson, and the French off the bay of Aboukir.

The French fleet lay at anchor in the bay of Aboukir, and the British admiral, by a daring and skilful manœuvre, placed the enemy between two fires, and commenced the attack. The action began at sun-set, and both parties fought with great spirit and bravery. Brueys, the French admiral, was killed by a ball; and soon after his ship the *l'Orient* took fire, and blew up with a tremendous explosion. This event decided the victory; but the French continued the engagement during the night till almost every captain on board perished. The morning discovered the French vessels immovable in the water, and in possession of the enemy. The English took nine sail of the line, and one was burned by order of her commander. Thus, the whole naval force of the French in the Mediterranean was destroyed, and precluded from all means of obtaining supplies from France.

NINUS, a son of Belus, who built a city to which he gave his own name, and founded the Assyrian monarchy, of which he was the first sovereign. B. C. 2559. He was very warlike, and extended his conquests from Egypt to the extremities of India and Bactriana. Ninus reigned fifty-two years, and at his death he left his kingdom to the care of his wife Semiramis, by whom he had a son. The history of Ninus is very obscure, and even fabulous according to the opinion of some. Ninus after death received divine honours, and became the Jupiter of the Assyrians and the Hercules of the Chaldeans.

A celebrated city, now Nino, the capital of Assyria, built on the banks of the Tigris by Ninus, and called Nineveh, in Scripture. It was taken by the united armies of Cyaxares and Nabopolassar king of Babylon. B.C. 606.

NINYAS, a son of Ninus and Semiramis, king of Assyria, who succeeded his mother who had voluntarily abdicated the crown. The reign of Ninias is remarkable for its luxury and extravagance. The prince left the care of the government to his favourites and ministers, and gave

himself up to pleasure, riot, and debauchery, and never appeared in public. His successors imitated the example of his voluptuousness, and therefore their names or history are little known till the age of Sardanapalus.

NISSA, a considerable city of Turkey in Servia, situate upon the river Nichawa, which falls into the Morava; fifteen German miles north from Scopia, twelve west of Ginstandil, and forty-two north-west from Thessalonica, memorable for the defeat of the Turks by the Imperialists, on the 24th of September 1699, under Prince Lewis of Baden, whereupon all Servia and Albania submitted to the emperor, as did the town next day after the victory; but it was retaken by the Turks in 1699, after a siege of three weeks. It is strong by its situation, capable of being improved, and has five mosques.

NOAILLES (Adrian Maurice, duke de), a celebrated French general, was born of a noble family, and evinced, early in life, eminent talents for the military profession. He served with his father in Catalonia, and afterwards under Vendome, both in Spain and Flanders. In 1768, he commanded in Roussillon, and gained several advantages over the enemy. In 1710, he made himself master of Gironne, one of the most important places in Catalonia, for which Philip V. created him a grandee of Spain, and Louis XIV. made him field-marshal. In the succeeding reign, he was appointed president of the council of finances; but when Dubois obtained the ascendancy in the ministry, Noailles was exiled. On the death of that minister, he was recalled, and restored to his place. In the war of 1733, he commanded at the siege of Philipsburg, and obliged the Germans to abandon Worms. He afterwards served with great reputation in Italy. The duke died in 1766.

NOLA, an ancient town of Campania, which became a Roman colony before the first Punic war. It was founded by a Tuscan, or, according to others, by an Eubœan colony. Nola was besieged by Annibal, and bravely defended by Marcellus. Augustus died there, on his return from Neapolis to Rome. Belle were

HISTORY.

introduced there in the beginning of the 12th century, for which reason they have been called *Nole* or *Osmegme*, in Latin. The inventor was St. Paulinus, the bishop of the place, who died A. D. 431, though many imagine that bells were known long before, and only introduced into churches by that prelate. Before his time, congregations were called to the church by the noise of wooden rattles (*sacra ligna*).

NORMANDY, a late province and ancient duchy of France, which, after the loss of Gaul by the Romans, formed part of the kingdom of Neustria. In the latter part of the ninth century the Normans settled here, and were governed by their own dukes; the most renowned of whom, was William, who achieved the conquest in 1066. In 1346, it was overrun by Edward III.; and in 1418, it was held by Henry V., who conquered the whole province, and obtained its formal cession to England by the peace of 1420. It was wrested from the English in 1449; and from that time Normandy was exempt from the evils of war, until the religious contests of the sixteenth century. It escaped in the revolution, though, in 1794, a Vendean army entered its western frontier; but were soon put to flight. Normandy had, until the revolution, its separate parliaments, which sat at Rouen; and its provincial laws and usages were preserved under the name of *Coutumes de Normandie*.

NORRIS (Sir John), second son to Henry, the first Lord Norris, famous for his valour, was first trained up in military exercises under Admiral Coligni in the civil wars of France, next in Ireland, under Walter, earl of Essex, then served in the Netherlands under Matthias, archduke of Austria, in 1579, afterwards under the Duke of Lorraine, 1582; next under William of Nassau; and, in the 27th of Queen Elizabeth was constituted colonel-general of all the horse and foot sent out of England to the relief of Antwerp, then besieged by the Spaniards, and empowered to treat with the states-general for the entertaining of the English foot appointed to serve in those party. In the 30th of Queen

Elizabeth, being then president of the council in the province of Munster in Ireland, he had a commission giving him power to constitute such principal officers as well by sea and land, as he thought fit for the defence of the kingdom. In the 33d of Queen Elizabeth he was constituted captain-general of those English auxiliaries that were sent to King Henry IV. of France, against his rebellious subjects in Bretagne; and, having deported himself with great prudence and courage in all these eminent employments, to the great honour of the English nation as well as of his own name, expected that upon the re-calling of Sir William Russell, knight, afterwards Lord Russell, he should have been deputy of Ireland; but, finding that Thomas, Lord Borough, was preferred to that command, and himself required to continue still in Munster, he became so highly discontented, as to occasion his premature death.

NORTH (Frederic), second Earl of Guilford, was the eldest son of Francis, the first earl, and born in 1732. He was educated at Eton, and next at Trinity-college, Oxford; after which he went to Leipsic. On his return home he was elected into parliament; and in 1760, he became a commissioner of the Treasury. In 1763 he succeeded Lord Bute at the head of the board; but resigned his seat in 1765; and the year following he became joint-receiver and paymaster of the forces. In 1767 he was appointed Chancellor of the Exchequer; and in 1770 first lord of the Treasury; both which offices he held during the American war, till 1782. Not long after this, the same statesmen who had repeatedly threatened his lordship with an impeachment, formed a coalition with him; but this motley administration lasted a very few months. In 1790 Lord North succeeded his father in the earldom, and died in 1792, having been blind some years.

NORTHALLERTON, a town of Yorkshire, near which in 1138 was fought the famous battle of the Standard, in which the King of Scots was defeated, with the loss of 10,000 men.

NORTHAMPTON, a town of England, where the forces of Henry VI.

were defeated by the Yorkists, in 1460, and the king made prisoner.

NORTHUMBERLAND (Percy, earl of), assisted Henry of Lancaster in deposing Richard II. in 1399. In 1403 some differences arose between them, for the obligations which Henry had owed to Northumberland were of a kind the most likely to produce ingratitude on the one side, and discontent on the other. The sovereign naturally became jealous of that power which had advanced him to the throne; and the subject was not satisfied with the returns which he thought so great a favour had merited. Northumberland was slain in battle at Bramham, in 1406. There were many warlike chiefs of Northumberland distinguished in the border wars, particularly with the rival house of Douglas. Dudley, earl of Warwick, was made Duke of Northumberland, in the reign of the infant King Edward VI. He caused the Duke of Somerset, and his friends, to be arrested; and soon after they were condemned and executed. He attempted to get Tunstall, bishop of Durham, attainted, but was disappointed by the commons; on which he caused him to be forcibly deprived of his bishopric. He procured the marriage of Lady Jane Grey for his fourth son, Lord Guildford Dudley; and persuaded the king to alter the succession to the throne in favour of this lady. After the death of King Edward, he proclaimed Lady Jane Grey as queen, and put himself at the head of an army, which soon deserted him; and he was taken, condemned, and executed, as were Lady Jane and her husband, some time after. An earl of Northumberland, in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, engaging to put Mary, queen of Scots, on the throne, raised a rebellion with the Earl of Westmorland; but being obliged to flee to Scotland, was apprehended by the Earl of Murray, and given up to Elizabeth.

NORTH AMERICA. (See *America and United States.*)

NORTH CAROLINA was the first seat of English colonization in North America. It was included in the patent granted in 1584 to Sir Walter Raleigh. The colonists being dissatisfied, returned to England in 1590. In the next spring another

expedition was fitted out by Raleigh, to convey over another supply of colonists; but misfortunes still attended the attempt. About the middle of the 17th century, some planters emigrated from Virginia, and with others, began a settlement in the county of Albemarle. In 1661 another settlement was made near Cape Fear. In 1667 a constitution was formed for the government of the infant colony; and two years afterwards, a constitution, remarkable for the novelty and extravagance of its features, and for having been the production of the famous John Locke, was attempted to be put in force, of which the whole number of regulations amounted to 120. But this proposition was dissatisfactory to the commonalty; and their discontent at last found vent in an open insurrection. In 1712 a horrible outrage was committed upon the whites of Carolina, who were destroyed in cold blood by the Corees and Tuscaroras. In 1717 the proprietors sold the province to the Crown for the sum of 17,500*l.*, and from this period to the epoch of independence, the government was administered by officers appointed by the king. Its prosperity was again retarded by an insurrection in 1771, of the inhabitants, who styled themselves "Regulators;" and, complaining of oppressions practised in the administration of justice, professed a desire to regulate these matters by destroying the lawyers. During the war of the Revolution, North Carolina was for a long time the theatre of hostilities, in which much blood was spilt. Since the peace of 1783, her progress has been so tranquil as to afford few materials for history.

NORWAY, an extensive kingdom of the north of Europe, united to Sweden in 1814. Norway was divided into petty principalities until the ninth century, and was little known till 1397, when it was incorporated with Denmark. Their peaceful union continued till 1814, when it was interrupted by the treaty which the King of Denmark was compelled to make with Great Britain, resigning the sovereignty of Norway to the King of Sweden, to which Norway was forced to submit; but as an integral state, and with

HISTORY.

the preservation of its constitution and laws.

SUCCESSION OF PRINCES.

800* Getho

991* Olaus I.

998 Sueno

1011 Olaus II.

In 1029, Norway was conquered by Canute the Great, king of Denmark, and was governed by Sueno, as regent. On the death of Canute, Norway recovered its independence.

1036 Magnus I.

1048* Harold I.

1066* Olaus III.

1077* Magnus II.

1110 Magnus III.

1139 Harold II.

1148 Magnus III. *restored*

1158 Ingo Gibbus

1176 *Interregnum*

1180 Magnus IV.

1232 *Haquin I. the Tyrant*

1263 Olan IV.

1280 Erick

1300 Haquin II.

1315 Magnus V.

1326 Haquin III.

1328 Magnus VI.

1359 Haquin IV.

1375 Olaus V.

1387 Margaret, *Queen of Denmark*

In 1417, the kingdoms of Denmark and Norway were united, under Erick IX.

NOVA SCOTIA. Sir William Alexander settled in Nova Scotia in 1602; but it was surrendered to the French by Charles I., on the family alliance between him and that court in 1632. It was recovered by Major Sedgwick, under Cromwell, in 1654; delivered again to the French, by Charles II., in 1662; recovered by Sir William Phipps in 1690; ceded to France at the peace of Ryswick in 1697; but conquered again by the English in 1710, and confirmed to them by the treaty of Utrecht in 1714. Afterward, in conjunction with the Indians, the French gave great disturbance to the English settlers in this country; but their possession was again confirmed by the treaty of Aix-a-Chapelle in 1748.

NOVI, a town in the north-west of Italy, at the foot of the Apennines, and where, August 16, 1799, the celebrated battle was fought between the French under Joubert, and Moreau,

and the Austro-Russian forces under Suwarrow, when Joubert was defeated and slain.

NOVOGOROD, a large city of Moscovy, capital of a principality of the same name, formerly enjoyed many privileges under a prince, who had no dependence on the Great Duke of Moscovy; and was become so and rich powerful, that it was a common proverb, "Who can oppose God, or the great city Novogorod?" The buildings are all of wood, after the manner of the Russians. Vithold, Great Duke of Lithuania, was the first, who, in 1427, obliged this city to pay a tribute of 200,000 crowns. John Basilowitz Grotsdin, tyrant of Moscovy, made himself master of it in 1477, and placed a governor in it; and, some time after, came in person and plundered the city, carrying away with him to Moscow, 300 waggons loaded with gold, silver, and precious stones, and other rich goods and furniture; to which place he also transported all the inhabitants of Novogorod, and sent Moscovites to inhabit their city. John Basilowitz, Great Duke of Moscovy, in 1569, upon a bare groundless suspicion of their designing to revolt, slew 2770 of its inhabitants, besides a vast number that were trodden to death by a party of his horse, let in upon them. After having plundered the rich church of Sancta Sophia, and all the treasures of the other churches, he also pillaged the archbishopric, and then commanded the archbishop to ride upon a white horse, with a fiddle tied about his neck, and a flute in his hand; and in this posture conducted him to Moscow. This city was taken by the Swedes in 1611, and restored to the Russians in 1634. In 1664 it was populous, and a place of good trade, encompassed with a timber wall, well stored with ammunition and brass ordnance, and defended by a castle. This duchy, once the greatest in Russia, was assigned by lot to Ruruk Varegus, their first duke, whose posterity enlarged their dominions as far as the Greek empire on one side, and Norway on the other. Novogorod is 105 German miles from Moscow, to the N. W., and 40 from Narva, to the S. E.

NUMA POMPILIUS, celebrated

philosopher, born at Cures, a village of the Sabines, on the day that Romulus laid the foundation of Rome. At the death of Romulus, the Romans fixed upon him to be their new king; and two senators were sent to acquaint him with the decisions of the senate, and of the people. Numa refused their offers; and it was not but at the repeated solicitations and prayers of his friends, that he was prevailed upon to accept the royalty. The beginning of his reign was popular, and he dismissed the 300 body guards which his predecessor had kept around his person; observing, that he did not distrust a people who had compelled him to reign over them. He was not like Romulus, fond of war and military expeditions; but he applied himself to tame the ferocity of his subjects, to inculcate in their minds a reverence for the Deity, and to quell their dissensions, by dividing all the citizens into different classes.

NUMANTIA, a town of Spain, near the sources of the river Durius, celebrated for the war of 14 years, which, though unprotected by walls and towers, it bravely maintained against the Romans. The inhabitants obtained some advantages over the Roman forces, till Scipio Africanus was empowered to finish the war, and to see the destruction of Numantia. He began the siege with an army of 60,000 men, and was bravely opposed by the besieged, who were no more than 4,000 men able to bear arms. Both armies behaved with uncommon valour, and the courage of the Numantines was soon changed into despair and fury. Their provisions began to fail, and they fed upon the flesh of their horses, and afterwards of that of their dead companions, and at last were necessitated to draw lots to kill and devour one another. The melancholy situation of their affairs obliged some to surrender to the Roman general. Scipio demanded them to deliver themselves upon the morrow; they refused, and when a longer time had been granted to their petitions, they retired and set fire to their houses, and all destroyed themselves, B.C. 133, so that not even one remained to adorn the triumph of the conqueror. Some historians, however, deny that, and

maintain that a number of Numantines delivered themselves into Scipio's hands, and that fifty of them were drawn in triumph at Rome, and the rest sold as slaves. The fall of Numantia was more glorious than that of Carthage or Corinth, though inferior to them.

NUMIDIA, an inland country of Africa, which now forms the kingdom of Algiers and Bildulgerid. It was the kingdom of Masinissa, which was the occasion of the third Punic war, on account of the offence which he had received from the Carthaginians. Jugurtha reigned there, as also Juba, the father and son. It was conquered, and became a Roman province, of which Sallust was the first governor. The Numidians were excellent warriors, and in their expeditions they always endeavoured to engage with the enemy in the night-time.

NUMITOR, a son of Procas, king of Alba, who inherited his father's kingdom with his brother Amulius, and began to reign conjointly with him. Amulius was too avaricious to bear a colleague on the throne; he expelled his brother, and that he might more safely secure himself, he put to death his son Lausus. Numitor was restored to his throne by his grandsons, and the tyrannical usurper was put to death.

NUREMBERG, **NURNBERG**, a large city of Germany, upon the confluence of the rivers Regen and Pegen, seated at the foot of a hill, and fortified with a castle. It belonged at first to the Dukes of Schwaben, but afterwards bought its liberty. Nuremberg has a university, and is accounted one of the greatest and richest cities of Germany. It borrowed its form of government, which is aristocratical, from the Venetians. The inhabitants embraced Luther's doctrine in 1506, but tolerate the Calvinists; and the Roman Catholics have one church allowed them. They submitted themselves, in 1631, to Gustavus Adolphus, who raised the siege laid to the city by Count Tilly, the 21st of March, and Count Wallenstein, in August, 1632; and in acknowledgment of this great service of his victorious arms, they presented him with four double pieces of cannon, of a peculiar make, and two globes,

OATES (Titus), an infamous character, was born about 1610. He was the son of a baptist preacher, and educated at Merchant Tailors' school, from whence he removed to Cambridge, and afterwards took orders. In 1677, he turned Roman Catholic, and was admitted into the society of Jesuits. On his return to England, however, he declared himself a Protestant, and in conjunction with one Dr. Ezrael Tongue, gave information of a pretended popish plot; which met with too ready a belief, and several persons were executed. Oates was rewarded with a pension of 1200*l.* a-year; but, when James II. came to the throne, he was found guilty of perjury, pilloried, whipped, and ordered to be imprisoned for life. In the reign of William III. he obtained his liberty, and a pension of 400*l.* a-year. He died in 1705.

OCTAVIA, a Roman lady, sister to the Emperor Augustus, and celebrated for her beauty and virtues. Her marriage with Antony was a political step to reconcile her brother and her husband. Antony proved for some time attentive to her, but he soon after despised her for Cleopatra. After the battle of Actium and the death of Antony, Octavia, forgetful of the injuries she had received, took into her house all the children of her husband, and treated them with maternal tenderness. The death of Marcellus her son continually preyed upon the mind of Octavia, who died of melancholy about ten years before the Christian era. Her brother paid great regard to her memory, by pronouncing, himself, her funeral oration. The Roman people also showed their respect for her virtues, by their wish to pay her divine honours.

OGZAKOV, a town of European Russia, attacked by the Prussians in 1757 under Count Munich, who took it by assault, and afterwards fortified by the Turks, but again attacked in 1768 by a Russian army under Prince Potemkin, who captured it after six months delay, and great loss.

ODENATUS, a celebrated prince of Palmyra. He early inured himself to bear fatigues, and accustomed himself to the labours of a military life. He was faithful to the Romans; and, when Aurelian had been taken prisoner by Sapor, king of Persia, Odenatus warmly interested himself in his cause, and solicited his release by writing a letter to the conqueror, and sending him presents. In a war with Sapor, he obtained some advantages over the troops of the Persian monarch, and took his wife prisoner with a great and rich booty. These services were seen with gratitude by the Romans; and Gallienus, the then reigning emperor, named Odenatus as his colleague on the throne, and gave the title of Augustus to his children, and to his wife the celebrated Zenobia. Odenatus, invested with new power, resolved to signalize himself more conspicuously by conquering the northern barbarians; but his exaltation was short, and he perished by the dagger of one of his relations. He died at Emessa, about the 267th year of the Christian era.

ODIN, a celebrated hero of antiquity, who flourished about 70 years before the christian era, in the northern parts of ancient Germany, or the modern kingdom of Denmark. He was at once a priest, a soldier, a poet, a monarch, and a conqueror. He imposed upon the credulity of his superstitious countrymen, and made them believe that he could raise the dead to life, and that he was acquainted with futurity. When he had extended his power, and increased his fame by conquest and by persuasion, he resolved to die in a different manner from other men. He assembled his friends, and with a sharp point of a lance he made on his body nine different wounds in the form of a circle, and as he expired he declared he was going into Scythia, where he should become one of the immortal gods. He further added, that he would prepare bliss and felicity for such of his countrymen as lived a virtuous life, who fought with intrepidity, and

who died like heroes in the field of battle.

ODMAN or **OSMAN**, the third Caliph or successor of Mahomet, was chosen in 648 by the commanders of the army whom he had bribed. In 649 he sent 700 vessels of war to Cyprus, under the command of Moavia, governor of Egypt, who ruined the greatest part of that island, and returning the next year destroyed the city of Nicosia, and laid waste the whole island. In the mean time Odman caused a collection to be made of the records of the Mahometan religion; and having divided it into chapters, founded the sect called Chefaya, from the name of the author who digested this collection of the Alcoran. In 651 he sent Occuba with a powerful army into Africa, who conquered the eastern parts of Barbary, and built there the city Calravan or Carvan. He also peopled several other parts, and mingled Arabians with the people of the country, who united into one government. Ibn Aleraqueik says, that these were the first Arabians who carried the Mahometan religion into Africa. Moavia, on the other hand, in 654, gained a famous naval battle over the Emperor Constantius II., who cruised the Phœnician sea with 1000 ships, and in 655 he took the Isle of Rhodes, and demolished its famous Colossus of the Sun. Afterwards he ravaged part of Armenia. During these successes Haly, who took upon him the title of Caliph in Arabia, sent several of his subjects to kill Odman, which they executed in the city of Damascus, though others say he killed himself for fear of falling into the hands of his enemies. He lived 87 years, and died in 658.

ODOACER, the son of Edicon or Edicas, king of the Herules, Scirrh and Turcilingii, people originally of Scythia; was called into Italy by those that sided with Nepos; he arrived there in the year 476, and having subdued the country of the Venetians, and Gallia Cisalpina, he defeated Orestes and his brother Paul, and sent Augustulus prisoner to a castle near Naples. He afterwards made war against the Rugians, a people of Germany, near the Baltic, defeated their army in 487, took

their king Felethus or Pheba, with his wife Gisas, and sent them into Italy. Their son Frederic made his escape, and by the assistance of Theodoric, king of the Goths, was restored to his father's dominions, but soon after deposed again by Odoacer. Whereupon Theodoric entered Italy in 489, and Odoacer endeavouring to stop his progress was defeated by him in the Venetian territories; and having lost two other battles, he was forced, in 490, to shut up himself in the city of Ravenna, which Theodoric besieged two years; and then made peace with Odoacer, and shared Italy with him; but not long after Theodoric caused him to be murdered at a feast in 493.

OFFA, surnamed the Great, King of Mercia, succeeded Ethelbald, 758, having killed Beornred, the usurper. He proved a warlike, subtle and ambitious prince. The blackest part of his reign was, his base murdering of Ethelbert, king of the East Angles, upon a fair invitation to come and marry his daughter; instead of which he caused him to be murdered in his own palace, and then seized his kingdom. Such was his enmity against Charles the Great, that it occasioned a prohibition of commerce on both sides, until by means of Alcuinus, a learned and politic monk, sent into France, to negotiate some important matter, their animosities were changed into a lasting friendship. To the pope who had gratified him so far as to translate the Primacy of Canterbury to Litchfield in his own dominion, he was so kind as to grant a perpetual tribute out of every house in his kingdom. His reign continued eight years and is also memorable for the prodigious trench (commonly called Offa's Dyke) which he drew from sea to sea, betwixt his kingdom and the British borders. It runs about 100 miles over hills and mountains, from the Mouth of Dee in Flintshire, to the Fall of Wye, in Gloucestershire. His aim was to keep the remainder of the dispossessed Britains within their borders in Wales. And for the same purpose Harold made a law, that if any Welshman was found with a weapon on this side of it, his right hand should be cut off.

OGLETHORPE (James Edward),

an English general, was the son of Sir Theophilus Oglethorpe, and born in the parish of St. James in 1698. He was educated at Corpus Christi college, Oxford, after which he obtained a commission in the guards. He next served under Prince Eugene, and on his return to England, became a member of parliament. In 1733 he settled the colony of Georgia, for which he obtained the royal charter, and to which province he was accompanied by the two Wesleys. While in that government he had to contend with the Spaniards, whose attempts he repelled, though he was unsuccessful in an expedition against St. Augustine. In 1745 he was made major-general, and the same year, marched against the rebels; but his conduct was made the subject of an inquiry, and he was acquitted. He died in 1785.

OHIO, a state of North America, was first explored by the French in 1680. A controversy respecting this country, between the traders of Canada and those of the English colonies, was finally the occasion of a long and destructive war. The French having possessed Ohio until the surrender of Canada, by the peace of 1763, the British succeeded to all the French possessions in the countries lying between the Alleg-hauy and the Mississippi. It was not until 1787 that any settlement was begun within the limits of the state of Ohio. In the year 1794, a decided victory was obtained by General Wayne over a large force of savages of this country; and, in the succeeding year, a period was put to hostilities. From this time the population of Ohio increased rapidly. In 1803 Ohio became a sovereign state, and a member of the union.

OLDCASTLE (Sir John), Lord Cobham was the head of the Lollards, and esteemed by Henry IV. and Henry V. The latter monarch at the instance of the Archbishop of Canterbury, expostulated with him, and endeavoured to reconcile him to the Catholic faith. But Cobham persevered in his opinion, and was at length condemned to the flames for his religious tenets. Cobham escaped from the tower and four years afterwards was retaken, hanged as a traitor, and his body burnt.

OLDENBURG, a grand duchy of Germany, the ancient family property of the illustrious House of Oldenburg, which succeeded to the duchy of Holstein by marriage, in the early part of the 15th century, and to the crown of Denmark in 1513. After the House of Holstein had succeeded to the throne of Russia, Denmark exchanged Oldenburg for that duchy, and Peter III. gave up Oldenburg to his cousin Frederic Augustus, bishop of Lubeck. In 1677 the Emperor of Germany erected Oldenburg and Delmenhorst into a duchy, and in 1803 the reigning duke received a great increase of territory. In 1810 he was expelled from all his possessions by Bonaparte, but he returned in 1813, and at the congress of Vienna received the title of Grand Duke.

OLIVAREZ (Count de), was prime minister to Philip IV. of Spain. His favour at court, at one time, is as notorious as his disgrace afterwards. His insolence and pride produced a revolt among the Catalonians, and the king's displeasure, when he had heard the complaint of Margaret of Savoy, who possessed the viceroyalty of Portugal, soon afterwards occasioned his banishment.

OLMUTZ, a large town in Moravia, belonging to Austria. In 1741, in a war raised against the succession of Maria Theresa, it was besieged and taken by the King of Prussia. In the war, afterwards carried on by Austria, France and Russia against Frederic the Great of Prussia, it was besieged for a long time by that monarch, and notwithstanding the valiant defence of the garrison would have been compelled to surrender, but for the loss of a large convoy bringing supplies to the Prussian army, which was obliged in consequence to retreat for want of provisions, which was effected with such skill and courage, that little or no injury was sustained.

OLYMPIADS, first in 776; second, in 772; third, in 768; fourth, in 764; fifth, in 760; seventh, in 752; tenth, in 740; thirteenth, in 723; fifteenth, in 720; sixteenth, in 716; seventeenth, in 712; twenty-first, in 696; twenty-third, in 688; twenty-fourth, in 684; twenty-fifth

in 306; twenty-seventh, in 372; twenty-eighth, in 398; twenty-ninth, in 404; thirty-ninth, in 424; forty-third, in 468; forty-sixth, in 500; fifty-fifth, in 550; fifty-sixth, in 556; sixtieth, in 540; sixty-first, in 586 before Christ.

OLYMPIAS, a celebrated woman, who was daughter of a king of Epirus, and who married Philip, king of Macedonia, by whom she had Alexander the Great. Her haughtiness, and more probably her infidelity, obliged Philip to repudiate her, and to marry Cleopatra, the niece of King Attalus. Olympias was sensible of this injury, and Alexander showed his disapprobation of his father's measures by retiring from the court to his mother. The murder of Philip, which soon followed this disgrace, and which some have attributed to the intrigues of Olympias, was productive of the greatest extravagancies. The queen paid the highest honour to her husband's murderer. She gathered his mangled limbs, placed a crown of gold on his head, and laid his ashes near those of Philip.—When Alexander was dead, Olympias seized the government of Macedonia; and, to establish her usurpation, she cruelly put to death Aridæus, with his wife Eurydice, as also Nicanor, the brother of Cassander, with 100 leading men of Macedon, who were inimical to her interest. Such barbarities did not long remain unpunished; Cassander besieged her in Pydna, where she had retired with the remains of her family, and she was obliged to surrender after an obstinate siege. The conqueror ordered her to be accused, and to be put to death. A body of 300 soldiers were directed to put the bloody commands into execution, but the splendour and majesty of the queen disarmed their courage, and she was at last massacred by those whom she had cruelly deprived of their children, about 316 years before the Christian era.

OMAR I., the second caliph, or successor of Mahomet. He was raised to this dignity after the death of Abubeker in 634. Soon after his entering upon the government, he carried on wars with Haly, who was the lawful successor of Mahomet, and who had retired into Arabia.

Omar having defeated Haly, taken the city Boara, and many other places of Arabia, turned his arms against the Christians, and entered Syria, where he gained a victory over Theodorus Bogairus, brother to the Emperor Heraclius, and afterwards returned victorious into Arabia. The emperor, who was then at Jerusalem, desirous to provide for his own safety, took the relics and most precious ornaments of the temple; and leaving Theodorus with Bahamus, retired to Constantinople. In 635, Omar gathered his forces, and marched against Damascus, which he took the year following, and afterwards all Phœnicia, and committed a thousand violences to force people to embrace his religion. The year following, a part of his army subdued Alexandria, and not long after all Egypt. In the mean time, Omar went in person to attack Jerusalem, and after two years' siege entered it victoriously in 638. Omar thus reduced all Judea to his obedience, and Jerusalem was, from that time, possessed by infidels till the conquest of it by Godfrey of Bouillon in 1099. In 639 he subdued all Mesopotamia, and at the same time built the city of Cairo, near the ruins of Memphis, in Egypt. And lastly, in 643, he made himself master of Persia. From the time of his taking Jerusalem he made his ordinary residence in that city, and built a magnificent temple there in honour of Mahomet; and, after having reigned ten years, he was killed by a Persian, one of his domestics, and buried at Medina in 644.

OMAR II., the tenth caliph, or successor of Mahomet, was chosen after the death of his cousin, Solyman Hascoïn, in the beginning of the year 721, at the time that Constantinople was besieged. He collected all his forces, and attacked that city; but the besieged made so stout a resistance, and so good use of their fireworks, that he was forced to raise it. And scarcely was Marvan, or Masalma, the general of the army, safe out of the channel of Constantinople, but a dreadful tempest destroyed most of his ships, and many others were consumed by fire, so that of 300 ships only fifteen escaped, five of which were taken by the

HISTORY.

Christians, and the other ten proceeded with the news of this defeat to the caliph, who imagining that God was angry with him for permitting Christians the exercise of their religion in his dominions, made all those whose fathers or mothers were Mahometans, embrace Mahometanism on pain of death, and upon great penalties forbade the eating of swine's flesh, and use of wine. He discharged all Christians that turned Mahometans from paying taxes and customs, and cruelly persecuted the others; and pushed on by a false zeal, he sent letters to Leo Isauricus, the emperor of Constantinople, to embrace Mahometanism, and sent a renegade to instruct him in the way of it; but he died soon after, having reigned two years.

ONORE, or HONAVUR, a seaport of Hindostan, taken from the Portuguese, by the Dutch, and by Hyder Aly in 1763. In 1768, it was taken by the British, but shortly after was retaken by Hyder. In 1783, it was taken by General Matthews, but was restored to Tippoo at the conclusion of the peace in the same year.

OPORTO, a large city in the north of Portugal, on the north bank of the Douro. It was in the possession of the French in 1808-9, but Soult was compelled to abandon it by Lord Wellington, since which it has remained undisturbed.

ORACLES (Ancient), impostures of the priesthood, supported by the policy of governments, and apparently credited by habit and education; but constantly used to impose on the soldiery and ignorant multitudes.—No institutions were more famous than the ancient oracles of Egypt, Greece, and Rome. They were impudently said to be the will of the gods themselves; and were consulted, not only upon every important matter, but even in the affairs of private life. To make peace or war, to introduce a change of government, to plant a colony, to enact laws, to raise an edifice, or to marry, were all sufficient reasons to consult the pretended will of the gods.—The small province of Boeotia could once boast of 25 oracles, and Peloponnesus of the same number. Not only the chief of the gods gave

oracles, but in process of time heroes were admitted to enjoy the same privileges; and the oracles of a Trophonius and an Antinoüs were soon able to rival the fame of those of Apollo and Jupiter. The most celebrated oracles of antiquity were those of Dodona, Delphi, Jupiter Ammon, &c. The temple of Delphi seemed to claim a superiority over the other temples; its fame was once more extended, and its riches were so great, that not only private persons, but even kings and numerous armies, made it an object of plunder and of rapine.—The manner of delivering oracles was different. A priestess at Delphi was permitted to pronounce the oracles of the god, and her delivery of the answers was always attended with acts of apparent madness and desperate fury. Not only women, but even doves, were the ministers of the temple of Dodona; and the suppliant votary was often startled to hear his questions readily answered by the decayed trunk, or the spreading branches of a neighbouring oak. Ammon conveyed his answers in a plain and open manner; but Amphiarus required many ablutions and preparatory ceremonies, and he generally communicated his oracles to his suppliants in dreams and visions. Sometimes the first words that were heard, after issuing from the temple, were deemed the answers of the oracles, and sometimes the nodding or shaking of the head of the statue, the motions of fishes in a neighbouring lake, or their reluctance in accepting the food which was offered to them, were as strong and valid as the most express and most minute explanations.—Some have strongly believed that all the oracles of the earth ceased at the birth of Christ, but the supposition is false. It was, indeed, the beginning of their decline; but they remained in repute, and were consulted, though perhaps not so frequently, till the fourth century, when christianity began to triumph over paganism. The oracles often suffered themselves to be bribed, Alexander did it; but it is well known that Lysander failed in the attempt. Herodotus, who first mentioned the corruption which often prevailed in the oracular temples of Greece and

Egypt, has been severely treated for his remarks by the historian Plutarch. Demosthenes is also a witness of the corruption; and he observed, that the oracles of Greece were servilely subservient to the will and pleasure of Philip, king of Macedonia, as he beautifully expresses it by the word *Philippidæia*.—When in a state of inspiration, the eyes of the priestess suddenly sparkled, her hair stood on end, and a shivering ran over all her body. In this convulsive state she spoke the oracles of the god, often with loud howlings and cries, and her articulations were taken down by the priest, and set in order. Sometimes the spirit of inspiration was more gentle, and not always violent; yet Plutarch mentions one of the priestesses who was thrown into such an excessive fury, that not only those that consulted the oracle, but also the priests that conducted her to the sacred tripod, and attended her during the inspiration, were terrified, and forsook the temple; and so violent was the fit, that she continued for some days in the most agonizing situation, and at last died. At Delphos, the Pythia, before she placed herself on the tripod, used to wash her whole body, and particularly her hair, in the waters of the fountain Castalia, at the foot of Mount Parnassus. She also shook a laurel-tree that grew near the place, and sometimes ate the leaves with which she crowned herself.—The priestesses always appeared in the garments of virgins, to intimate their purity and modesty; and they were solemnly bound to observe the strictest laws of temperance and chastity, that neither fantastical dresses nor lascivious behaviour might bring the office, the religion, or the sanctity of the place, into contempt. There was originally but one Pythia, besides subordinate priests; but afterwards two were chosen, and sometimes more. The most celebrated of all these is Phe-monoe, who is supposed by some to have been the first who gave oracles at Delphi. The oracles were always delivered in hexameter verses, a custom which was some time after discontinued. The Pythia was consulted only one month in the year, about the spring. It was always

required, that those who consulted the oracle should make large presents to Apollo, and from thence arose the opulence, splendour, and the magnificence, of the celebrated temple of Delphi. Sacrifices were also offered to the divinity; and, if the omens proved unfavourable, the priestess refused to give an answer. There were generally five priests who assisted at the offering of the sacrifices; and there was also another who attended the Pythia, and assisted her in receiving the oracle.—The most celebrated of the ancient oracles were Delphos, Delos, Ammon, Dodona, the Roman Augurs, and the Sibylline Books.—DELPHOS, now called *Castri*, the capital of Phocis, in Greece, was anciently much celebrated for its temple and oracle of Apollo. It was also called *Pytho* by the poets, from the serpent Python, which Apollo killed in this place. Pausanias, however, says that this name Pytho was given to the city of Delphos by Pythis, son of Delphus, and grandson of Lycorus. The Greek historians gave to this city the name of Delphos, which some suppose to have been so called from *Adelphoi*, brethren, because Apollo and his brother Bacchus were both worshipped there; and others, with greater probability, derive the name from *Delphos*, single or solitary, referring to the retired situation of the city among the mountains.—Justin questions which was the most worthy of admiration, the fortification of the place, or the majesty of the god who here delivered his oracles. The temple of Apollo occupied a large space, and many streets opened to it. The first discovery which laid the foundation of the extraordinary veneration in which the oracle of Delphos was held, and of the riches accumulated in the temple, is said to have been occasioned by some goats which were feeding on Mount Parnassus, near a deep and large cavern, with a narrow entrance. These goats having been observed by the goat-herd, Coretas, to frisk and leap after a strange manner, and to utter unusual sounds immediately upon their approach to the mouth of the cavern, he had the curiosity to view it, and

HISTORY.

found himself seized with the like fit madness, skipping, dancing, and foretelling things to come.—At the news of this discovery multitudes flocked thither, many of whom were possessed with such frantic enthusiasm, that they threw themselves headlong into the opening of the cavern, insomuch that it was necessary to issue an edict, forbidding all persons to approach it. This surprising place was treated with singular veneration, and was soon covered with a kind of chapel, which was originally made of laurel boughs, and resembled a large hut. This, according to the Phœcian tradition, was surrounded by one of wax, raised up by bees; after this a third was built of solid copper, said to have been the workmanship of Vulcan.—This last was destroyed by an earthquake, or (according to some authors) by fire, which melted the copper; and then a sumptuous temple, altogether of stone, was erected by two excellent architects, Trophimus and Agamedes. This edifice was destroyed by fire in the 58th Olympiad, or 548 years B.C. The Amphictyons proposed to be at the charge of building another; but the Alcæonides, a rich family of Athens, came to Delphos, obtained the honour of executing the building, and made it more magnificent than they had at first proposed. The riches of this temple, amassed by the donations of those who frequented it, and consulted the oracle, exposed it to various depredations. At length the Gauls, under the conduct of Brennus, came nither for the same purpose, about 278 years B.C.; but they were repulsed with great slaughter. Last of all, Nero robbed it of five hundred of its most precious brazen and golden statues.—It has not been ascertained at what time this oracle was founded. It is certain, however, that Apollo was not the first who was consulted here. Æschylus, in his tragedy of the Eumenides, says, Terra was the first who issued oracles at Delphi: after her, Themis, then Phœbe, another daughter of Terra, and, as it is said, mother of Latona, and grandmother to Apollo. Pausanias says, that before Themis, Terra and Neptune had delivered oracles in this place, and

some say that Saturn had also been consulted here. At length the oracle of Apollo became established and permanent; and such was its reputation, and such were the multitudes from all parts that came to consult it, that the riches which were thus brought into the temple and city, became so considerable as to be compared with those of the Persian kings.—About the time when this oracle was first discovered, the whole mystery requisite for obtaining the prophetic gift, is said to have been merely to approach the cavern and inhale the vapour that issued from it, and then the god inspired all persons indiscriminately; but at length, several enthusiasts, in the excess of their fury, having thrown themselves headlong into the cavern, it was thought expedient to contrive a prevention of this accident, which frequently occurred. Accordingly, the priests placed over the hole, whence the vapour issued, a machine which they called a tripod, because it had three feet, and commissioned a woman to seat herself in it, where she might inhale the vapour without danger, because the three feet of the machine stood firmly upon the rock. This priestess was named Pythia, from the serpent Python, slain by Apollo, or from the Greek *pythēsthai*, signifying to inquire, because people came to Delphi to consult this deity. The females first employed, were virgins, selected with great precaution; but the only qualification necessary was to be able to speak and repeat what the god dictated.—This was done by placing her ear close to one of the horns of the altar, and listening to the voice of one of Apollo's priests, to whom the *question* had been communicated. This priest, who stood near the altar, in the interior of the temple, having been assisted by his brethren in the necessary devotions and sacrifices, opened the Book of Fate, which was deposited in the temple, and after many prayers worked the required problems. The answer, which from the nature of the case in hand, was often *conditional*, being communicated to the priestess on the tripod, was, after various ceremonies, delivered to the inquiring multitude, or to the individual who came privately

to consult the oracle.—The custom of choosing young virgins continued for a long time, till one of them, who was extremely beautiful, was dishonoured by a young Thessalian. An express law was then enacted, that none should be chosen but women above fifty years old. At first there was only one priestess, but afterwards there were two or three. The oracles were not delivered every day; but gifts and sacrifices were in some cases presented for a long time, and even for a whole year; and it was only once a year, in the month *Boeotia*, which answered to the beginning of spring, that Apollo inspired the priestess. Except on this day, she was forbidden, under pain of death, to go into the sanctuary to consult Apollo.—Alexander, before his expedition into Asia, came to Delphi on one of those days when the sanctuary was shut, and entreated the priestess to mount the tripod; which she steadily refused, alleging the law which forbade her. The prince became impatient, and drew the priestess by force from her cell, and whilst he was conducting her to the sanctuary, she took occasion to exclaim, "*My son, thou art invincible!*" As soon as these words were pronounced, Alexander cried out that he was satisfied, and would have no other oracle.—It is here to be observed, however, that great, but unnecessary, preparations were often made, for giving mystery to the oracle, and for commanding the respect that was paid to it. Among other circumstances relating to the sacrifices that were offered, the priestess herself fasted three days, and before she ascended the tripod, she bathed herself in the fountain *Castalia*. She drank water from that fountain, and chewed laurel-leaves gathered near it. She was then led into the sanctuary by the priests, who placed her upon the tripod.—As soon as she began to be agitated by the divine exhalation, said to arise from the cavern, but which was merely the vapour of incense burnt there, in order to give more mystery to the affair, her hair stood on end, her aspect became wild and ghastly, her mouth began to foam, and her whole body was suddenly seized with violent trem-

blings. In this condition she attempted to escape from the priests, who detained her by force, while her shrieks and howlings made the whole temple resound, and filled the bystanders with a sacred horror.—At length, unable to resist the impulse of the god, she surrendered herself up to him, and at certain intervals uttered from the bottom of her stomach, or belly, by the faculty or power of ventriloquism, some unconnected words, which the priests ranged in order, and, put in form of verse, giving them a connexion which they had not when they were delivered by the priestess. The oracle being pronounced, the priestess was taken off the tripod, and conducted back to her cell, where she continued several days to recover herself. Lucan tells us, that speedy death was frequently the consequence of her enthusiasm. The oracles pronounced by the priestess being generally delivered to the poets, who attended on the occasion, and being put by them into wretched verse, gave occasion to the raillery, that "Apollo the prince of the muses, was the worst of poets." The priests and priestesses, to whose conduct the responses of the oracle were committed, were, however, frequently guilty of fraud and imposture. And many instances might be mentioned, in which the Delphic priestess was not superior to corruption. Hence she persuaded the Lacedæmonians to assist the people of Athens in the expulsion of the thirty tyrants. Hence, also, she caused Demaratus to be divested of the royal dignity to make way for Cleomenes; and supported the impostor Lysander, when he endeavoured to change the succession to the throne of Sparta. It is not improbable, that Themistocles, who well knew the importance of acting against the Persians by sea, inspired the god with the answer he gave, "to defend themselves with walls of wood."—These answers were likewise, on many occasions equivocal. Thus, when Cræsus was about to invade the Medes, he consulted this oracle upon the success of the war, and received for answer, that by passing the river Halys, he should ruin a great empire. But he was left to conjecture, or to determine by the

HISTORY.

event, whether this empire was his own or that of his enemies. Such was also the same oracle's answer to Pyrrhus,—“*Aio te, Æacida, Romanos vincere posse.*”—which meant, “I say O son of Æacus, that thou canst overcome the Romans,” or, “I say O son of Æacus, that the Romans can overcome thee.” The oracle of Apollo, in Delos, was one of the most famous oracles in the world, not only for its antiquity, but for the richness of the sacred presents dedicated to the god, and the numbers of persons that resorted hither from all parts for advice; in which respect it surpassed not only all the oracles of other gods, but even those of Apollo himself,—that of Delphos alone excepted. Some writers say, that the island had the name of Delos, from the clear and simple terms in which the answers were here given by the oracle, contrary to the ambiguity observed in other places; but it was consulted only while Apollo made Delos his summer residence, for his winter abode was at Patara, a city of Lycia. The presents offered by the votaries to Apollo, were laid on the altar, which, as some say, was erected by Apollo himself, when he was only four years old, and formed of the horns of goats, killed by Diana, on mount Cynthus. It was preserved pure from blood and every kind of pollution, as offensive to Apollo. The whole island was an asylum, which extended to all living creatures, dogs excepted, which were not suffered to be brought on shore.—The native deities, Apollo and Diana, had three very magnificent temples erected for them in this island. That of Apollo, was, according to Strabo, (lib. x.) begun by Erysiapthus, the son of Cecrops, who is said to have possessed this island 1558 years B. C.; but it was afterwards much enlarged and embellished at the general charge of all the Grecian states. But Plutarch says, that it was one of the most stately buildings in the universe, and describes its altar, as deserving a place among the seven wonders of the world. The inscription in this temple, as Aristotle informs us, (Ethic. i. l. c. 9.) was as follows: “Of all things the most beautiful is justice; the most useful is health;

and the most agreeable is the possession of the beloved object.”—Round the temple were magnificent porticoes, built at the charge of various princes, as appears from the still legible inscriptions. To this temple the neighbouring islands sent yearly a company of virgins to celebrate with dancing the festival of Apollo, and his sister Diana, and to make offerings in the name of their respective cities.—Delos was held in such reverence by most nations, that even the Persians, after having laid waste the other islands, and every where destroyed the temples of the gods, spared Delos; and Datis, the Persian admiral, forbore to anchor in the harbour.—The temple of Jupiter Ammon was in the deserts of Libya, nine days journey from Alexandria. It had a famous oracle, which, according to ancient tradition, was established about 18 centuries before the time of Augustus, by two doves which flew away from Thebes in Egypt, and came, one to Dodona, and the other to Libya, where the people were soon informed of their divine mission. The oracle of Ammon was consulted by Hercules, Perseus, and others; but when it pronounced Alexander to be the son of Jupiter, such flattery destroyed its long established reputation, and in the age of Plutarch it was scarcely known. The situation of the temple was pleasant; and there was near it a fountain whose waters were cold at noon and midnight, and warm in the morning and evening. There were above 100 priests in the temple, but the elders only delivered oracles. There was also an oracle of Jupiter Ammon in Æthiopia.—Dodona was a town of Thesprotia in Epirus. There was in its neighbourhood, upon a small hill called Tmarus, a celebrated oracle of Jupiter. The town and temple of the god were first built by Deucalion, after the universal deluge. It was supposed to be the most ancient oracle of all Greece, and according to the traditions of the Egyptians mentioned by Herodotus, it was founded by a dove. Two black doves, as he relates, took their flight from the city of Thebes in Egypt, one of which flew to the temple of Jupiter Ammon, and the other to Dodona, where

with a human voice they acquainted the inhabitants of the country that Jupiter had consecrated the ground, which in future would give oracles. The extensive grove which surrounded Jupiter's temple was endowed with the gift of prophecy, and oracles were frequently delivered by the sacred oaks, and the doves which inhabited the place. This fabulous tradition of the oracular power of the doves, is explained by Herodotus, who observes that some Phœnicians carried away two priestesses from Egypt, one of which went to fix her residence at Dodona, where the oracle was established. It may further be observed, that the fable might have been founded upon the double meaning of the word *peleiæ*, which signifies *doves* in most parts of Greece, while in the dialect of the Epirots, it implies *old women*. In ancient times the oracles were delivered by the murmuring of a neighbouring fountain, but the custom was afterwards changed. Large kettles were suspended in the air near a brazen statue, which held a lash in its hand. When the wind blew strong, the statue was agitated and struck against one of the kettles, which communicated the motion to all the rest, and raised that clattering and discordant din which continued for a while, and from which the priests drew their predictions. Some suppose that the noise was occasioned by the shaking of the leaves and boughs of an old oak, which the people frequently consulted, and from which they pretended to receive the oracles. It may be observed with more probability that the oracles were delivered by the priests, who, by concealing themselves behind the oaks, gave occasion to the multitude to believe that the trees were endowed with the power of prophecy. As the ship Argo was built with some of the oaks of the forest of Dodona, there were some beams in the vessel which gave oracles to the Argonauts, and warned them against the approach of calamity. Within the forest of Dodona there was a stream with a fountain of cool water, which had the power of lighting a torch as soon as it touched it. This fountain was totally dry at noon-day, and was

restored to its full course at midnight; from which time till the following noon it began to decrease, and at the usual hour was again deprived of its waters. The oracles of Dodona were originally delivered by men; but afterwards by women.—THE ROMAN AUGURS, were certain priests at Rome who foretold future events, and took their name, *ab auspicio garritu*. They were first created by Romulus to the number of three. Servius Tullius added a fourth, and the tribunes of the people, A. U. C. 454, increased the number to nine; and Sylla added six more during his dictatorship. They had a particular college, and the chief amongst them was called *Magister Collegii*. Their office was honourable; and if any one of them was convicted of any crime, he could not be deprived of his privilege; an indulgence granted to no other sacerdotal body at Rome. The augur generally sat on a high tower, to make his observations. His face was turned towards the east, and he had the north to his left, and the south at his right. With a crooked staff he divided the face of the heavens into four different parts, and afterwards sacrificed to the gods, covering his head with his vestment. There were generally five things from which the augurs drew omens: the first consisted in observing the phenomena of the heavens, such as thunder, lightning, comets, &c. The second kind of omen was drawn from the chirping or flying of birds. The third was from the sacred chickens, whose eagerness or indifference in eating the bread which was thrown to them, was looked upon as lucky or unlucky. The fourth was from quadrupeds, from their crossing or appearing in some unaccustomed place. The fifth was from different casualties, which were called *Dira*, such as spilling salt upon a table, or wine upon one's clothes, hearing strange noises, stumbling or sneezing, meeting a wolf, hare, fox, or pregnant bitch. Thus did the Romans draw their prophecies; the sight of birds on the left hand was always deemed a lucky object, and the words *statis ter et levius*, though generally supposed to be terms of ill luck, were always used by the augurs in an auspicious sense. — A strange old

woman came once to Tarquinius Superbus, king of Rome, with nine books, which she said were the *Oracles of the Sibyls*, and proffered to sell them. But the king making some scruple about the price, she went away and burnt three of them; and returning with the six, asked the same sum as before. Tarquin only laughed at the humour; upon which the old woman left him once more; and after she had burnt three others, came again with those that were left, but still kept to her old terms. The king began now to wonder at her obstinacy, and thinking there might be something more than ordinary in the business, sent for the augurs to consult what was to be done. They, when their divinations were performed, soon acquainted him what a piece of impiety he had been guilty of, by refusing a treasure sent to him from heaven, and commanded him to give whatever she demanded for the books that remained. The woman received her money, and delivered the writings, and only charging them by all means to keep them sacred, immediately vanished. Two of the nobility were presently after chosen to be the keepers of these oracles, which were laid up with all imaginable care in the capitol, in a chest under ground. They could not be consulted without a special order of the senate, which was never granted, unless upon the receiving some notable defeat, upon the rising of any considerable mutiny or sedition in the state, or upon some other extraordinary occasion. The number of priests in this, as in most other orders, was several times altered. The Decemviri continued till about the year of the city 388, when the tribunes of the people preferred a law, that there should be ten men elected for this service, part out of the nobility, and part out of the commons. We meet with the Decemviri all along from hence, till about the time of Sylla the dictator, when the Quindecimviri occur. It were needless to give any further account of the Sibyls, than that they are generally agreed to have been ten in number; for which we have the authority of Varro, though some make them nine, some four, some three, and some only one. They all

lived in different ages and countries, were all prophetesses, and, according to common opinion, foretold the coming of our Saviour. As to the writing, Dempster tells us it was on linen.—Solinus acquaints us, that the books which Tarquin bought were burnt in the conflagration of the capitol, the year before Sylla's dictatorship. Yet there were others of their inspired writings, or at least copies or extracts of them, gathered up in Greece and other parts, upon a special search made by order of the senate; which were kept with the same care as the former, till about the time of Theodosius the Great, when the greatest part of the senate having embraced the Christian faith, they began to grow out of fashion; till at last Stilicho burnt them all under Honorius, for which he is severely censured by the poet Rutilius.

ORANGE, (Princes of)—See *Nussau*.

ORDONNO I., King of Leon and of the Asturias, succeeded his father Ramir I. in 850. The inhabitants of Toledo, having revolted from the Saracens, called him to their assistance in 854. But afterwards, having received some losses, he died the 27th of May, 862, after a reign of 12 years. He had, by Nunna his wife, Alphonsus III. who left Garcia, Ordonno and Troila; the first of whom dying in 913, Ordonno II. succeeded him, who gained a most signal victory over Almansor, Prince of the Moors, of whom he killed near 70,000. He died in 923, and Troila his brother usurped the throne, which of right belonged to Alphonsus IV., son of Ordonno; who obtained fourteen months after, and kept it till 931, when Ramir II., his brother, confined him to a monastery, and reigned till 950. Ordonno III., his son, succeeded him, and was continually at war with his subjects. In 955, Ordonno IV. surnamed the Bad, son of Alphonsus IV., called the Monk, usurped the kingdom, but the year following, he was deposed by Sancho I. called the Big, son of Ramir II., and brother of Ordonno III.

ORKNEY, or ORCADES, are islands belonging to Scotland, situated in the Northern Ocean. They are mentioned by several Roman

artists; and were visited by the fleets of Agricola, sent to explore the island. The first inhabitants were the Picts, but it was subdued by the Norwegians or Normans, at the time that that enterprising people effected conquests through almost every part of Europe. Orkney, after this, was governed by a succession of warlike earls, who constantly kept up a powerful fleet, with which they ravaged the coasts of England, Ireland, and Scotland; in the latter of which, they conquered several northern counties. The black raven which was the flag of Orkney continued to be an object of terror till the time of James III. of Scotland, in 1474, when the Orkneys were ceded to that monarch as part of the marriage portion of Margaret of Denmark; and this treaty was afterwards confirmed on the marriage of James VI. with Ann of Denmark. The piratical expeditions of the earls of Orkney were then suppressed, and it has long been a well regulated and peaceable portion of the British empire.

ORLEANS, a large town in the central part of France, besieged by Attila, in 450, and chiefly known by the siege it sustained against the English in 1428, in which the celebrated Joan of Arc acted so distinguished a part. In 1653, it was besieged by the Catholics, when the great Duke of Guise was slain.—(See *Joan of Arc*.)

ORLOFF (Count), the favourite of Catharine II. of Russia, murdered the czar Peter III. 1762. Catharine loaded him and his brothers with honours, and dignified them with the title of counts. Orloff having, however, aimed at the honour of publicly receiving the hand of Catharine, he was ordered to travel, together with a grant of 100,000 rubles in ready money, a pension of 50,000, a magnificent service of plate, and an estate containing 6000 peasants.

ORMOND (Duke of), made an unsuccessful attack on Cadiz in 1702. On the 13th of July 1712, he was defeated at Denain by the Duke of Villars. He was soon after impeached, in conjunction with the Earl of Oxford, the Earl of Strafford, and Lord Bolingbroke, for the part which he had taken in a treaty of peace. He, however, escaped; and,

in 1716, he made some unsuccessful attempts in favour of the pretender.

OSCOTTA, a fortress of the south of India, in possession of the Maharrattas in 1689, taken from them by the nabob of Cuddapah, but again retaken by the Maharrattas. In 1761 it was besieged and taken by Hyder Aly and the brother of the Nizam. Seven years after this, the British got possession of it, but in 1773 it was recovered by Hyder. In 1799 it again fell into the hands of the British; by whom it was made over to the young rajah of Mysore.

OSMAN, emperor of the Turks, was the son of Achmet I., whom he succeeded at the age of 12 years, in 1618. In 1631 he led an army of near 400,000 men against the Poles, but with no success, for he lost above 100,000 of them in endeavouring to force the Polish camp consisting of 60,000 Poles and Cossacks, commanded by Prince Ladislaus: upon this defeat, he was forced to make a peace on very disadvantageous terms. And supposing that the Janisaries had been the occasion of his loss, he purposed to rid himself of them; and being moreover suspected of having a design to remove the seat of the empire to Damascus in Syria, the Janisaries rebelled against him, and set up his brother Mustapha, by whose order he was strangled on the 20th of May, 1639. He reigned only four years and four months.

OSTEND is a very strong sea-port of the Netherlands. It is noted for the sieges which it has withstood; particularly for a very terrible siege for three years, from July 6, 1601, to Sept. 23, 1604, against the armies of Spain, when the tower was valiantly defended by the troops of the Prince of Orange, assisted by the forces of Queen Elizabeth, under the command of Sir Francis Vere, who was chief general for five months. The loss of the Spaniards was immense, being little short of 100,000 men; and although they afterwards succeeded in taking the place, it was yet at such an expense of men and treasure, that this siege is justly considered as the chief cause of the ruin of their affairs in the Netherlands, and of the establishment of the independence of the united provinces. On the death of

HISTORY.

Charles II. of Spain the French seized Ostend : but in 1706, after the battle of Ramillies, it was retaken by the allies. The emperor Charles VI. established an East India Company here, but it met with such a powerful opposition from the maritime powers, that after many negotiations, it was abolished in 1731. Ostend was taken by the French in 1745, but given up at the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748. In the war of 1759 the French garrisoned the town for the empress Maria Theresa. The emperor Joseph again attempted to establish an East India trade, but was not very successful. In 1792 it was taken by the French, and retaken by the English in 1793, who garrisoned it for the emperor Francis II. When the French conquered Belgium, Ostend fell into their hands. In the course of the war, a detachment of British troops landed, and destroyed the sluices of the canals through which the French were collecting a naval force. The detachment after effecting their object were unfortunately made prisoners of war.

OSTERWALDE, a pass in the mountains of Bohemia, where the French, under Vandamme, were defeated by the allied army, August 31, 1813, with a loss of nearly 10,000 men.

OSTROGOTHLAND, a province of Sweden, which comprehends the province, properly so called, Smaland, Bleking, and Schonen. The Ostrogoths, or Eastern Goths, were those who lived in Italy, so called, in contradistinction to the Wisigoths, who inhabited on this side the mountains. Cassiodorus says these people were called Ostrogoths, from Ostrogotha, one of their kings; and that in the reign of Arcadius and Honorius they invaded Phrygia, Lydia, Pamphylia, and afterwards made Martianus leave them a part of Pannonia, and forced Zeno to give them several places in Illyricum. They were very great under their king Walamer, and his brother Theudimir, and still more so under Theodoric, who, besides Italy and Sicily, was master of Dalmatia, a part of Pannonia and Gaul, and several other places. He made the Alemanni, or Germans, pay him tribute.

OSTROLENKA, a town of Poland, where a corps of Russians were

defeated by the French, Feb. 28, 1806. They entered the place three times, and were three times repulsed by their opponents at the bayonet. Their loss in killed and prisoners was 2000 men.

OTTHMAN, or OTTOMAN EMPIRE. The Ottomans are displeased with the name of Turks, which they reject as indicating uncivilized barbarians. The remembrance of Turk, a descendant of Japhet, and the father of all the nations or tribes that inhabit Tartary, might confer on that branch of the Ottomans the honour of being the most ancient and illustrious in the world.—Othman I., descended from the celebrated Jenghis Khan, with seven other Turkish captains, seized all the countries which had been in the possession the Seleucids in Asia Minor, A. D. 1300.—He assumed the title of sultan; and, pursuing his conquests, took Prusa in Bithynia, which he made the seat of the Ottoman empire or kingdom. He died after a reign of twenty-seven years, in 1328, which had been entirely spent in military expeditions, and was succeeded by his son Orchan, who continued the conquests of his father in the Greek empire, and took Nicca or Nicomedia.—Morad, or Amurath I., the son and successor of Orchan, succeeded also to his father's usurpation of the country, in 1356; and passing the straits of Gallipoli, he took Adrianople, which he made the seat of his empire.—Amurath is extolled for his justice, temperance, modesty, and piety.—He was succeeded by his son, Bajazet I., in 1389, whose brother, attempting to supplant him, was strangled; and this is said to have been the first instance of that sanguinary custom, afterwards so common, of putting to death princes of the royal blood. This prince is celebrated by his victories, and by the most distressing misfortunes. He flew from Asia to Europe, and returned to Asia with such inconceivable rapidity, that the Turks have given him the surname of Thunderbolt. He provoked the attacks of Timur Bec, or Tamerlane, who wished to accommodate their differences, but who accepted the challenge of Bajazet, and in the plains of Prusa proved completely victo-

flous, in one of the bloodiest battles that had ever been fought. It continued a whole day, and thousands on both sides fell by the sword; but, while displaying the utmost efforts of valour, Bajazet was defeated and made prisoner.—An interregnum of 12 years succeeded, during which the three sons of Bajazet governed each a separate part of the empire; but, at length, it was united under Mohammed, in 1413, who had an opportunity of displaying a noble character, the brightest features in which were gratitude and clemency. He was succeeded by his son Morad, or Amurath II, in 1422, who was a cruel tyrant, and who took Thessalonica, or Salonica, and put the inhabitants to the sword; and invaded and subdued Servia, destroying all before him; entered Transylvania, ravaging the country, and murdering the natives, and acted the same brutal part in Wallachia. He gained the famous battle of Varna, in which Stephen, king of Hungary, was slain.—Amurath died of age and grief at his ill success against Scanderbec, king of Epirus, and was succeeded by his son, Mohammed II., in 1451, the greatest warrior of all the Turkish sultans. His reign lasted 30 years, and was a continued series of battles and victories, almost without a single reverse. However, he had to contend with generals capable of suspending his progress, and of checking his ambition, had their forces been equal to their courage. Among these were the celebrated Huniades, king of Hungary; Matthias Corvinus, his son; and above all, Scanderbec, after whose death the Turks made relics of his bones, which they wore as a preservative against dangers. On the 29th of May, 1453, Mohammed took the city of Constantinople. Thus ended the Greek empire, and the seat of the Turkish was founded. Unprovoked, the Turks attacked it, and never ceased till they had usurped the throne, as they had done those of so many other states and kingdoms, murdering millions in cold blood, and by tortures of inconceivable barbarity. After Mohammed had taken the capital, he turned his arms against what still remained of the Greek empire, in the isles and on the continent.—He was succeeded by his eldest son, Bajazet II., in 1480, who subdued

the Moldavians; made a conquest of Caramania; rendered several of the Asiatic princes tributary; had considerable success in Syria; reduced Croatia; occasioned great devastation in the Morea; landed a body of troops in the island of Rhodes; and paved the way for the conquest of Egypt, by depriving the Mamelukes, who commanded in that country, of the necessary succours which they derived from Circassia. Exhausted with fatigue and debauchery, Bajazet was desirous of placing the crown on the head of his eldest son, Ahmed. In this situation of affairs, Selim, the youngest, arrived in the neighbourhood of Constantinople, under the pretence of paying a visit to his father. This young prince was soon surrounded by the whole court, who ranged themselves under his banners; and the aged monarch, foreseeing what would be the event of such a visit, willingly resigned his crown into the hands of Selim.—Selim ascended the throne in the 45th year of his age, in 1512, and caused his brothers, Ahmed and Corcal, with five of his nephews, and a great many of the nobility, to be put to death. As he had received the crown from the suffrages of the soldiers, who wished only for war, he endeavoured to gratify their desires, and leading his army into Egypt, completely defeated the Mamelukes. However, as he imagined he could not ensure the quiet possession of Egypt, but by the total extinction of that people, he offered rewards to those who should discover any of them, and denounced the severest punishment against such as concealed them. When he thought he had them all assembled, he ordered a superb throne to be erected for him upon the banks of the Nile, without the gates of Cairo; and these unhappy wretches being brought into his presence, he caused them all to be murdered before his eyes, and their bodies to be thrown into the river.—Solyman, the son of Selim, had scarcely mounted the throne, in 1520, when he formed the design of extending his empire as much in Europe, as his father had done in Asia. He directed his attempts against the Christians, and soon took Rhodes from the knights of St. John, who had possessed the island for upwards

of 200 years. He then attacked Hungary, took Buda, and entered Austria with fire and sword. He laid siege to Vienna; where finding a desperate resistance, he withdrew his troops, but previously massacred all his prisoners, men, women, and children. He made Joba, king of Hungary, tributary to him, and took Bagdad, the whole of Assyria, and Mesopotamia. In short, he extended his reputation as a warrior to both extremities of the world.—Selim, the son of Solyman, made peace with Germany and Persia, and took the island of Cyprus from the Venetians, in 1566.—Amurath III., the eldest son of Selim, in 1575, was obliged to give large sums to appease the janisaries, who, having been accustomed, during the vacancy of the throne, to plunder, and even massacre their fellow-citizens, were disappointed on this occasion. To give employment to his untractable soldiery, he made war upon Russia, Poland, Germany, and Venice, and subdued Georgia. He is said to have been of a quiet disposition, a lover of justice, and very zealous in his religion. He left behind him 20 sons, of whom 19 were strangled by the eldest, his successor.—Mohammed III., having thus secured to himself the throne by the slaughter of his brothers, in 1596, thought it necessary also to take away the life of all the late sovereign's wives and concubines, by whom it was possible that there should be any posthumous progeny. The insolence of the janisaries now greatly increased, and they were perpetually revolting and fighting with the other soldiers. The pachas also rebelled in many provinces; and the sultan, through fear, made peace with them, and confirmed them in their office. Immersed in the pleasures of the seraglio, Mohammed bestowed no other attention on public affairs than was absolutely necessary. He caused his eldest son, a prince of inestimable qualities, to be put to death.—Ahmed ascended the throne when he was scarcely 15 years old, in 1603, and soon demonstrated that the sceptre was not unworthily intrusted to him. Under his reign, those fires which are so common began at Constantinople, and which seldom or never break out but when the people are

discontented. Ahmed was succeeded by his brother Mustapha, in 1617. His cruelties rendered him so odious, that he was deposed and sent to prison in the castle of the Seven Towers, and his nephew, Othman, placed on the throne, in 1619. Othman, discontented with his janisaries, meditated revenge against them; and as he could not drive them from Constantinople, he formed the design of transferring the seat of government into Asia. But the janisaries discovering his intention, massacred the grand visir, who they supposed to be the author of the measure, imprisoned the emperor, who was soon after put to death, and reinstated Mustapha on the throne. The uncle, however, derived very little benefit from this event. He was treated as an idiot, led about upon an ass exposed to the derision and insults of the populace, and then carried back to prison, where he was strangled by the orders of his successor.—Amurath IV., brother to the unfortunate Othman, by intrepidity and courage repressed the turbulence of the janisaries, and freed himself from every kind of rebellion, in 1621. During his reign, which lasted 17 years, he caused 14,000 men to be destroyed. His chief amusement was to run about the streets in the night, with a sabre in his hand, and to cut down all whom he met. He was succeeded by his brother Ibrahim, in 1639, who had languished four years in prison, and who, on being restored thus unexpectedly to liberty and empire, was so intoxicated by the new pleasures which they presented, that resigning the administration of government to the former ministers, he devoted himself entirely to the luxuries of the harem. The mufti having excited a revolt among the janisaries; and Ibrahim, finding himself unable to resist, resigned the crown, and in a few days was put to death.—Mohammed IV. the eldest son of Ibrahim, succeeded his father, in 1649. His reign was long and glorious; but after so many years passed in prosperity, which ought to have established his power, he was forced to abdicate the throne, though he survived his deposition, and was not molested in his apartment, which served as a prison. The exploits of

this emperor, which, if detailed at length, would fill a volume, are not so far distant from the present period as to be obscured by the veil of time. The famous siege of Candia, which subjected the ancient Crete to the dominion of the Crescent, makes a conspicuous figure in the page of history. At the beginning of the 18th century, fathers at Vienna were accustomed to relate to their children the battles which they had witnessed under the walls of that city, when Sobieski disappointed the hopes of the Mohammedans. Mohammed IV. distinguished himself by his inclination to mercy, and seldom commanded his troops in person; which probably caused the revolt of the soldiers, who placed the crown on the head of one of his brothers. Solyman II. did not seat himself on the throne without apprehension, in 1685; and, while receiving the usual congratulations, seemed every moment to expect his formidable brother with the executioners and instruments of death. Solyman had to support a disastrous war against Germany and Venice, the misfortunes of which were attended with the most ruinous consequences. But Kiopruli Mustapha Pacha being appointed grand-visir, regenerated the empire, and putting himself at the head of the main army, besieged and took the fortress of Belgrade. He died of the dropsy, and was succeeded by his brother, Ahmed II., in 1691, who had as little judgment, and as little influence in the government. Kiopruli being killed on the banks of the Danube, when on the point of obtaining a victory, the sovereign soon followed his general to the grave.—Mustapha II., son of Mohammed IV., gave new vigour to the empire, in 1695, which had languished under his predecessors. He resolved to command his troops in person, but met with a more disgraceful and more complete defeat than the Turks had ever experienced. His troops, not receiving their pay in due time, took up arms, deposed Mustapha, and invited Ahmed his brother to repair to the army.—Ahmed III. followed the advice of his brother, in 1705; and in the course of five months put to death more than 14,000 soldiers,

who had taken the greatest share in the rebellion, and who were carried away in the night-time, and drowned in the Bosphorus. A war broke out between the Porte and Russia; that with Germany and Venice was re-kindled; and another was carried on in Persia. These military expeditions, though not always unsuccessful, reduced the empire to a state of general weakness, which was felt particularly in the capital: all tended to irritate the minds of men, and produced a revolt that dethroned Ahmed, after a reign of 27 years. On the deposition of Ahmed, in 1730, and the elevation of his nephew Mohammed V., a considerable alteration took place in the mode of carrying on the government. From the time of Mohammed II., the whole administration had been usually delegated to the visir; but as this and the preceding rebellion had originated in the overgrown power and ambition of these officers, Mohammed V. took the authority into his own hands, and determined to change his visirs frequently. This prince was unfortunate in his battles both with the Russians and Kouli Khan, whom he was obliged to acknowledge as sultan of Persia.—On the death of Mohammed, his brother Osman came from confinement to the throne; in 1754; and the kishar-aga and his secretary gained the confidence of his new sovereign, and assumed all their former power. Osman was succeeded by Mustapha III., the son of Ahmed, in 1757, who deprived the kishar-aga of his place and influence, and attached to the visirat great part of the emoluments formerly given to the kishar-aga. Mustapha having attacked the Russians, in 1769, a bloody war commenced with the exploits of Prince Gallitzin, who gained four separate and complete victories over the Turks, whom he obliged to abandon Choczim. The Russians speedily overran Moldavia and Wallachia, and gained a great naval victory off Tchesme, where the whole of the Turkish fleet was destroyed. These and other important successes of the Russians compelled the Turks to conclude a dishonourable peace, on the 21st of July, soon after the death of Mustapha, and the accession of his brother Abdulhamid.

HISTORY.

The peace of 1774, was the first great step towards the limitation of an empire, originally founded, and gradually extended, by rapine and injustice. On the death of Abdul-hamid, in 1780, Selim III., son of Mustapha, ascended the throne, at a time when the empire was engaged in another unsuccessful war with Russia, which terminated greatly in favour of the latter power. From this period, the most interesting and important concerns relating to the Ottoman empire, were for some time connected with the internal and civil broils, in which the celebrated Passawau Oglu, or Pezman Ohlu, took a very active and decided part against the regular government. Civil war, which was probably fomented by the French, when they invaded Egypt, appeared likely to become general throughout Turkey; a revolution was effected by the janissaries, who deposed Selim III., and raised to the throne Mustapha IV., in 1801., and had it not been for the assistance of the English, and the regard which they paid to its interests, in the treaty of pacification, in 1802, it is probable that the Ottoman Porte would have ceased to exist as an independent nation. Russia declared war against Turkey, on the pretext of a peace concluded with England by the latter power, in 1809, and the Turks and Russians commenced hostilities against each other with no other apparent object than mutual destruction. At length, mutual exhaustion rendered the operations on both sides languid; and Russia finding herself invaded by the formidable power of France, a treaty of peace was concluded with Turkey, in 1812, which ceded the cities and districts on the left of the Pruth as the price of pacification.

OTHO (M. Salvius), a Roman emperor, descended from the ancient kings of Etruria. He was acknowledged by the senate and the Roman people, but the sudden revolt of Vitellius, in Germany, rendered his situation precarious, and it was mutually resolved that their respective right to the empire should be decided by arms. Otho obtained three victories over his enemies, but in a general engagement near Brizetium, his forces were defeated, and he

stabbed himself when all hopes of success were vanished, after a reign of about three months, on the 20th of April, A. D. 69.

OTHO, emperor of Germany, elected at Aix-la-Chapelle, in 936. At the earnest solicitation of the Italians, Otho repaired in person to Rome, where he was solemnly crowned emperor of the Romans in 960, dignified with the appellation of Augustus, and honoured with the homage of the senate and people. He died in 973.

OTHO II., surnamed the Sanguinary, succeeded his father on the imperial throne; but his authority was warmly disputed by Henry, duke of Bavaria, and the commencement of his reign was disturbed by some hostile incursions of the Danes and Bohemians. In 979 he led a numerous body of forces into Italy, in order to punish a revolt of the Romans. He died in 983, and was succeeded by his son Otho III., at the age of 12 years.

OTTOCARUS I., king of Bohemia, crowned king in 1199 by the emperor Philip, whose interest he had vigorously espoused; but having offended him by his divorce, he deprived him of half his kingdom; upon which he sided with Otho, the emperor's rival.

OTTOCARUS II., king of Bohemia, chosen duke of Styria, he usurped the duchy of Austria, or rather entered upon it in right of Margaret of Austria, his queen, and in 1269 got Carinthia, which made him so arrogant that he refused to pay homage to the emperor Rodolphus of Habsburg, for some lands depending on him in Bohemia; whereupon he was summoned to appear and give an account of his unjust acquisitions. But he, in defiance of the summons, sent nobody to the diet to answer for him; heavy complaints were made against him by the princes, and it was voted by common consent to send ambassadors to Bohemia; when these returned without any satisfaction, and described his conduct towards the emperor and princes, they resolved on a war, and promised all necessary assistance. The forces being in readiness, the emperor marched into Austria; whereupon, Ottocarus doubt-

ing the success of a battle, and being apprehensive of the emperor's conduct, sued for peace, consented to part with Austria, and in sight of both armies, upon his knees swore homage to Rodolphus, for Bohemia and his other possessions; but his wife and some turbulent men upbraiding him for so unworthy an action, he broke the peace, and invaded Austria with a powerful army. The emperor takes the field to meet him, and having joined his German and Hungarian troops, defeated Ottocarus, and killed him. This happened in 1278.

OWEN GLENDOWER, the last of the Welsh princes, was born in 1348. He became an esquire-attendant on Richard II., in whose misfortunes he shared by the forfeiture of

his estate, which Henry IV. gave to Lord Grey. On this, Glendower was so exasperated, that he assembled his friends, burnt the town of Ruthin, and having taken Grey prisoner, forced him to pay a large sum for his ransom. In 1402, this chieftain defeated Edward Mortimer; after which he convened a Welsh parliament, and was acknowledged sovereign of Wales. This title, however, he did not long enjoy, and was obliged to adopt a shepherd's life for his security. He died in 1415.

OXENSTIERN (Axel), a Swedish statesman, was born in 1582. He was the favourite of Gustavus Adolphus, after whose death he conducted the affairs of the kingdom with equal ability and integrity. He died in 1654.

P.

PAINÉ (Thomas), a political writer, was born in 1737, at Thetford, in Norfolk, where he was brought up to the business of a stay-maker. He afterwards became an exciseman at Lewes; but being dismissed for some mal-practices, he went to America, where he contributed much to the revolution by a pamphlet, entitled "Common Sense," for which he was rewarded with five hundred pounds by the legislature of Pennsylvania. He also obtained a grant of land in the province of New York. In 1790, he came to London, and excited considerable notice by his "Rights of Man," in answer to Burke. A prosecution, however, being instituted against Paine, he went to France, where he was chosen into the national assembly; but in the time of Robespierre he was thrown into prison, and narrowly escaped the guillotine. During this confinement he wrote his work called "The Age of Reason." After his liberation he published some political tracts of little moment. In 1802 he went to America, where he died June 8, 1809.

PALATINATE OF THE RHINE, a country of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine, which has often suffered much from its wars with France. The elector Frederic married Elizabeth, daughter of James I.

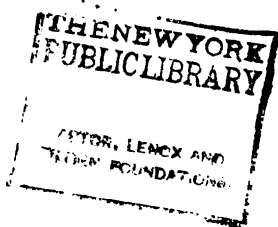
of England, and from the issue of the marriage is descended the present royal family. The states of Bohemia offering him the crown of that kingdom, he imprudently listened to the call of ambition, and was defeated at the battle of Prague, and obliged to take refuge in Holland. He was put to the ban of the empire, his hereditary dominions were seized, and the ineffectual efforts of Holland and England in his behalf were treated with scorn. When Gustavus Adolphus, the king of Sweden, took up the cause of the Protestants in Germany, and defeated the imperial armies, the dominions of the Palatine family were in part recovered and confirmed to them by the treaty of Westphalia in 1648. A great portion of this country was most cruelly wasted and destroyed by the cruel policy of Louis XIV. of France, that it might not afford shelter or forage to the armies of the empire. This country and Bavaria by inheritance are now subject to the same family.

PALERMO, a city of Sicily, originally peopled by a colony of Phœnicians, and subsequently in the hands of the Carthaginians and Romans.

PALESTINE (See *Judea*). Palestine extends from Cœle-Syria to Arabia Petrea; on the west it has the Mediterranean, and on the east



Pub^d Jan^y 1853 by J^r R. Phillips & C^o Print^{rs} C^o Bridge St^o Blackfriars.



HISTORY.

Arabia Deserta. The country is mountainous, and there is only one principal river, the Jordanes, or Jordan, which rising from Mount Hermon, falls into the lake of Gennesareth, or sea of Tiberias; after which it loses itself in a more spacious one, Lacus Asphaltites, the Bituminous Lake, or Dead Sea. On the western side of Jordan were Judæa on the south, Samaria in the middle, and Galilee in the north; on the eastern side was Peræa. The Philistines were mostly on the coast towards Egypt. In the kingdom of Judah stood Hierosolyma, or Jerusalem, built on several hills, the largest of which was Mount Sion; it formed the southern part of the city. On the east of the second, or lower city, was Mount Moriah. Jerusalem, when enlarged and beautified by David, Solomon, &c., became a most renowned city, and as such is mentioned by Herodotus under the name of Cadytia. Its temple on Mount Moriah, was a noble and costly structure. Both the city and temple were destroyed by the Chaldeans, about 600 years B. C. The second temple, which had begun to decay, was rebuilt by Herod the Great. The destruction of Jerusalem by Titus was A. D. 70. Under Adrian, a new city, altogether Roman, and called Ælia, was built, but there was an alteration in its site. Sion, the principal quarter of the ancient city, was not comprised within the new city. It subsists at present, but in a deplorable condition, inhabited by a motley group of Turks, Jews, and Christians. A mosque has supplanted the temple. North-east of Mount Moriah was the Mount of Olives, beyond the brook and valley of Kedron; on the south was the valley of Hinnom, and on the north Mount Calvary. Six miles to the south-east was Bethlehem. A rugged mountainous country lay between Jerusalem and Jericho, famous for its balm. For this, and for their palm-trees, both Judæa and Idumæa were celebrated. Hebron, a place of high antiquity, was the sepulchre of Abraham and his family. In the time of the crusades it bore the name of St. Abraham; and the Arabs, who always respect their primitive names, call it Cabr

Ibrahim, or the tomb of Abraham. Gaza and Ascalon, on the coast, preserve their names, as also Ekron. Gath is more inland. Azotus was the ancient Ashdod. Lydda, in the interior, has the name of Lod. South of it is Arimathea. Towards the south lay Idumæa, or Edom: the natives were subdued by the Maccabees, and incorporated with the Jewish nation. In Jerome's time the country was deserted, the few inhabitants contrived their dwellings in caverns.

PALLISER (Sir Hugh), an English admiral, was born in 1721. He entered into the navy early in life, and distinguished himself on many occasions, particularly at the taking of Quebec. In 1773, he was made a baronet; but being second in command to Admiral Keppel, in the memorable battle off Ushant, July 27, 1778, some misunderstanding took place, and these two officers preferred charges against each other. Keppel was acquitted, and Palliser censured. This sentence, however, was considered as more the effect of party than of justice; and he was made governor of Greenwich hospital, where he died in 1796.

PALMYRA, the ruins of a great city of Asia, in the desert of Syria, said to have been destroyed by Nebuchadnezzar. The only brilliant part of its history was under Odenathus and his queen Zenobia. It afterwards fell under the power of the Mahometans, but at what period it sank into its present state of desolation is uncertain.

PAMPELUNA, or **PAMPLONA**, a large town in the north of Spain, supposed to have been built by Pompey. In 1813, on the flight of the French from Vittoria, this fortress was garrisoned and provisioned, and in the vicinity the obstinate conflicts of the 27th and 29th of July took place, when the French being compelled to pass the Pyrenees, Pampeluna was cut off from all supplies, and surrendered Oct. 31.

PANAMA, a city and sea-port of South America, discovered by the Spaniards in 1515. In 1521 it was constituted a city by Charles V., and in 1660 it was attacked by an English adventurer, who reduced the fort, and marched to the city. It has

suffered much from fire, and has been twice rebuilt.

PANIANY, a sea-port town of India, captured by the British, under Colonel Humberton, in 1782: and in November of that year attacked by a large force under Tippoo Saib, whom they repulsed with great slaughter; and Tippoo, receiving intelligence of the death of his father, the next day retreated, and left the British in possession of the place. In 1803, the troops being withdrawn, Paniany was restored to the tyrant of Mysore, who retained it till 1792, when it was annexed to the British possessions.

PANIPUT, a town of Hindostan, celebrated as the scene of two sanguinary battles,—the first in 1525 between the Mogul army of Sultan Baber and a host of Afghans and Hindoos, commanded by the Emperor Ibrahim Lody, when the emperor was killed, and his army routed, by which the empire of Delhi was transferred from the Afghans to the Moguls. The second took place in 1761, between the Mahometan armies and the Marhattas, the former consisting of eighty thousand cavalry and infantry, with eighty pieces of cannon; and the latter of 70,000 regulars and 15,000 Pindaries, with nearly 200 pieces of cannon. On the 7th of January a bloody contest began, which lasted nearly the whole day. The Marhattas yielded, and were pursued 40 miles, and an incredible number were slain; 40,000 of them were made prisoners, many of whom were put to death by the Afghans. This decisive victory re-established the Mahometan interests in Hindostan.

PAPIRIUS CURSOR (Lucius) dictator of Rome, the greatest captain of his time, triumphed over the Samnites, and designed to have put to death Q. Fabius Maximus Rullianus for fighting without his orders, though he had defeated his enemies, in the year of Rome 429. Fabius fled to the city; but the Tribunes declining to protect him, the people were prevailed upon by the tears of his parents to sue for his pardon. Papirius was consul in 428, and had for colleague C. Pætilius Libo; and during that consulship there was a

law made at Rome, taking off the obligation of satisfying any debt whatsoever by the captivity of the body. He was a very rich Patrician, who daily increased his estate by his usuries, and had exhausted one called Publius by this means. The time of payment being over, and Publius not having wherewith to satisfy, Papirius adjudged him for a slave. C. Publius, a handsome young man, offered to enter into slavery for the ransoming of his father, and the creditor did not refuse so advantageous an exchange; but when he saw himself possessed of so beautiful a slave, he extended his bestiality yet further than his avarice. The youth, born free, and of a noble spirit, generously withstood all the solicitations and threats of his base master, until finding himself too much pressed, he flew into the street, and begged the help of the people, who flocked about him, and secured him from the violence of Papirius. He was consul three other times in 435, 439, and 441. He defeated the Samnites again, made 10,000 of them captives, and won the town of Luceria. This was not the only advantage he had over this people, who were defeated by him again in 445, being dictator the second time. He left two sons, Sp. Papirius, the father of another of the same name, on whom his grandfather bestowed a crown and bracelets for his valour in the wars against the Samnites, as Livy remarks; and L. Papirius Cursor, who was colonel of horse, and afterwards consul in the year 461 of Rome with Sp. Carvilius Maximus soon after his father's death. His name was terrible to the Samnites, whom he entirely defeated, took their cities, and received the honours of triumph. It was upon this occasion that Papirius laughed at the superstition of the sacred chickens, wherewith the simple people of Rome were amused. His augury had much more reason in it than those of the hens, as having been founded upon the good disposition of the soldiers, and the measures he had taken, which succeeded so well, that he killed above 30,000 of the enemy, and made 3000 prisoners. Papirius was censor and

HISTORY.

consul in 482 with the same Sp. Carvilius a second time. He continued the war against the Samnites and Tarentines, which gave occasion of triumph to the consuls, and at last put an end to the war with the Samnites after seventy-one years, continuance; and to that of the Tarentines, which had begun ten years before.

PARAGUAY, an extensive government of the vice-royalty of Buenos Ayres, discovered by Cabot in 1526.

PARGA, a sea-port on the coast of Albania, was built on the decline of the Roman empire. It is hardly mentioned in history till 1401, when it entered into an alliance with Venice, which continued until the subversion of the latter in 1707. In 1814 Ali Pacha marched against it with a military force; the Pargiots withstood the attack, but applied to the British in Corfu, and received a garrison from them, in the hope of being incorporated with the republic of the Ionian Islands. To this compact, however, the British did not give effect; the dread of continued dissensions with the Albanians led to a negotiation for its surrender; Ali paying an indemnity to those who should refuse to remain after a change of government. The evacuation took place in 1819, most of the inhabitants removing to the Ionian Islands.

PARIS, the capital of France, and one of the finest cities in the world, owes its foundation to the means of defence afforded by the insular position of the spots now called the Cité and the Isle of St. Louis. It was, however, very strong, when, under the name of Lutetia, it resisted a Roman detachment sent against it by Cæsar. The Romans strengthened their fortifications; and in the fifth century it was taken by the Franks; and in 508 was constituted the capital of the kingdom. It was improved by Charlemagne, and surrounded with walls at the end of the twelfth century. Under Louis XIV. some improvements were made: but Versailles being then the chief care of the Bourbons, Paris received only slow and partial embellishments, until the revolution, when it became essential for the new rulers (particu-

larly Bonaparte) to conciliate the favour of so important a city.

PARKER (Admiral) had a severe engagement with the Dutch fleet off the Dogger Bank, on the 5th of August, 1781, but without any decisive issue on either side. In 1801, Admiral Parker and Lord Nelson were despatched with a squadron to open the Baltic; an engagement took place with the Danish fleet at Copenhagen, when the result was a complete victory on the part of the English.

PARLIAMENTS began under the Saxon government; the first regular one was held in King John's reign, 1204; the epoch of the house of commons, Jan. 23, 1265; members obliged to reside in the places they represented, 1412; peer's eldest son, Francis Russell, son of the Earl of Bedford, the first who sat, 1549; the parties of court and country, June 16, 1628; bill passed for triennial parliaments, Nov., 1694; the first British one met, Oct. 24, 1703; triennial act repealed, May 1, 1716; the first parliament of the united kingdom met Jan. 22, 1801.

PARMA (Duke of), of the family of Farnese, was one of the most warlike and skilful generals of Philip II. of Spain. He succeeded to Don John of Austria in the command of the armies in the Low Countries, and endeavoured to suppress the revolt of these provinces. He gained ground every year, and reduced several provinces; and in 1584 he laid siege to the city of Antwerp, the conquest of which he hoped would put an end to the contest. In this, however, he was disappointed; for the succours sent by Queen Elizabeth re-animated the courage of the Dutch to a more desperate resistance. The Duke of Parma, however, evinced superior skill in his battles with the English; and, if the government of Spain had been such as to afford any hope of tranquillity, the provinces might have returned to obedience. In 1588, the duke prepared a numerous land army of 34,000 men, with boats and flat-bottomed vessels, to be ready to join the formidable armada in making a descent upon England; but finding that the armada was not able to keep

the sea in consequence of the storms and the valour of the English, he refused to embark his army in so desperate an enterprise. In 1590, when the forces of the Holy League were blockaded in Paris by the troops of Henry IV., he marched to their relief, which he effected, and again marched back his army with such consummate skill, as not to afford to the French king an opportunity of engaging in battle.—A magnificent statue of him is to be seen in the grand square at Piacentia.

PARMA, a city in the north of Italy, was founded by the ancient Etrurians. In the 16th century, Paul III. gave it to his son Luigi Farnese, whose descendants continued to reign as dukes of Parma till the extinction of the male branch. In 1714, Elizabeth Farnese married Philip V. of Spain, and brought him the duchy as a dowry. Her son Don Carlos took possession of it in 1731; but it being settled in 1735, that Don Carlos should be made king of the two Sicilies, the duchy of Parma and Piacenza was ceded to the emperor, and governed by the house of Austria till 1748, when they were given up to Don Philip, son of Philip V. By the peace of Lunéville, the duke of Parma was raised to the throne as king of Etruria, in 1801. In 1805, Parma and Piacenza were united to France, and on the fall of Bonaparte they were taken by the Austrians, and in 1814 were given by the treaty of Paris to Maria-Louisa, the ex-empress, devolving on her death to Austria and Sardinia—a provision which has since been modified by certain equivalents.

PARMENIO, a celebrated general in the armies of Alexander, who enjoyed the king's confidence, and was more attached to his person as a man than as a monarch. When Darius king of Persia offered Alexander all the country which lies at the west of the Euphrates, with his daughter Statira in marriage, and 10,000 talents of gold, Parmenio took occasion to observe, that he would without hesitation accept of these conditions if he were Alexander; *so would I, were I Parmenio*, replied the conqueror. This friendship, so true and inviolable, was sacrificed to a moment of resentment and suspicion; and Alexander, who had too eagerly listened to a

light and perhaps a false accusation, ordered Parmenio and his son to be put to death, as if guilty of treason against his person. Parmenio was in the 70th year of his age, B. C. 330. He died in the greatest popularity, and it has been judiciously observed, that Parmenio obtained many victories without Alexander, but Alexander not one without Parmenio.

PARTHIA, now distinguished by the name of Erach, was bounded on the north by Hyrcania, on the east by Aria, on the south by Carmania the Desert, and on the west by Media. The ancient Parthians were originally a tribe of Scythians, who, being expelled from the land of their nativity, took up their abode in this part of Asia. Arsaces, the founder of the Parthian monarchy, assumed the regal dignity B. C. 250. His son Arsaces II. subdued Media, but was soon dispossessed of this acquisition. On the death of Arsaces, the government devolved on his son Priapatus, who bequeathed the crown to his eldest son Phraates. This last prince subdued the Mardi, a warlike people of the east. He left the kingdom to his brother Mithridates, who soon reduced Bactria, Persia, Media, Elymais, and several other countries, and carried his victorious arms into India, even beyond the boundaries of Alexander's conquests. He afterwards made himself master of Babylonia and Mesopotamia; and his reign is regarded as the epoch of the Parthian grandeur. We pass over a few unimportant reigns till we come to that of Orodes, who engaged in war with M. Licinius Crassus, which was attended with a vast effusion of blood, and proved extremely disastrous both to the Parthians and the Romans. At length, Crassus was everthrown with a great slaughter, and his head sent to Orodes; whilst his vanquished troops tamely surrendered or were put to the sword. Orodes sent an army to besiege the city of Antioch, which, however, the Parthians could not take. To revenge the death of Crassus, the Romans entered Syria, B. C. 58, and, after some partial engagements, succeeded in defeating Pacorus, the son of Orodes, who was killed in the battle. Orodes appointed Phraates his successor, B. C. 36. Phraates no sooner attained to this height of power

than he caused all his brothers by the daughter of Antiochus Eusebes to be put to death, and attempted to despatch Orodes also, by poison, which proving ineffectual, he ordered him to be stifled in his bed, and exercised the same cruelty upon the prime nobility, his eldest son, and the other branches of the royal family. To elude the vengeance of this barbarian, many of the Parthian nobles emigrated into Syria, and prevailed on Marc Antony to invade their unhappy kingdom. The Romans, however, were so harassed by the enemy, that they were reduced to the most pitiable extremities, and narrowly escaped destruction. The Parthian monarch continuing to exercise the most wanton cruelties upon his own subjects, the nobles entered into a conspiracy, and chasing him from the country, conferred the sovereignty on Tiribates, one of their own body. Phraates, however, returned, and defeating his rival in a pitched battle, recovered his paternal inheritance. At length, this tyrant was poisoned by his wife, that her son Phraatices might ascend the throne. Phraatices had scarcely assumed the diadem, when his subjects, resolving to revenge the crime to which he had been accessory, rose in arms, and placed one Orodes, who was of the Arsacidan family, on the throne. This prince was assassinated. On the death of Orodes II., the emperor Augustus was requested by the Parthians to send one of the sons of Phraates, who had been educated at Rome, to assume the government. Accordingly, he sent them Vonones, but the Parthians growing weary of him, persuaded Artabanus, king of Media, to chase him from the throne. Artabanus, at length, firmly established himself in the government of Parthia, and died in the 31st year of his reign. He was succeeded by his son Bardanes, who made war upon Izates, king of Adiabene, A. D. 47, who had greatly assisted in restoring Artabanus to the throne of Parthia. This ingratitude was so warmly resented by the Parthian nobles, that they caused Bardanes to be assassinated, and bestowed the crown on his brother. Gotarzes was succeeded by one Vonones, governor of Media, A. D. 49. On the demise of this last prince, the

government devolved on Vologeses, the son of Gotarzes, who maintained a bloody war against the Romans, on account of the crowns of Armenia and Syria, which he had bestowed on Tiridates and Pacorus, two of his brothers. Artabanus III. next ascended the throne. He was succeeded by his son Pacorus. Cosdroes, the son of Pacorus, invaded Armenia in the beginning of his reign, and expelled Exadares, who had been placed on the throne of that country by the emperor Trajan. To revenge this insult, Trajan marched into the East, recovered Armenia, made himself master of Mesopotamia, pursued his route to Babylon and Ctesiphon, and bestowed their crown on Parthaspates, a prince of the Arsacidan family. On the death of Trajan, however, the Parthians recalled Cosdroes, and chased Parthaspates from the throne. After a very long reign, Cosdroes was succeeded by his eldest son, Vologeses II., who, after carrying on hostilities against Rome for about four years, with various success, consented to acknowledge the sovereignty of the Roman people. On the demise of the Parthian king, his nephew Vologeses III. ascended the vacant throne, and having incensed the emperor Severus, was stripped of his treasures, his wives, and his children. Artabanus, the son and successor of Vologeses, had scarcely established himself in the kingdom, when the emperor Caracalla, desirous of signaling himself against the Parthians, sent ambassadors to demand his daughter in marriage. This was readily granted; and the king, being informed that the emperor was coming to solemnize the nuptials, went out to meet him, with the chief of the Parthian nobility, all unarmed, and habited in splendid dresses. This peaceable train no sooner approached the Roman troops, than they were attacked with the utmost fury, and Artabanus himself was compelled to elude destruction by a precipitate flight. On account of this exploit, the base Caracalla assumed the surname of *Articus*. Artabanus swore irreconcilable hatred to the perfidious emperor, and inspired the whole nation with the same spirit of vengeance. An engagement was fought between the Parthians and the Romans, which was terminated

only by darkness. Caracalla dying, an alliance between the two empires was proposed, and peace was concluded. At this juncture, an enterprising Persian, named Artaxares, after a dreadful engagement, defeated Artabanus at the head of all the Parthian forces. Artaxares caused Artabanus to be put to death, and restored the empire to the Persians, after they had been subject to the princes of Parthia for the space of 475 years. The royal family of Arsaces, however, continued to reign in Armenia till the time of the emperor Justinian.

PATNA, a celebrated city of Hindostan, and capital of the province of Bahar. On the 25th June, 1763, the British detachment stationed there for the protection of the factory, scaled the walls, and began pillaging the houses. They were, however, attacked by the garrison, and taken prisoners. In revenge for this affair, the Rajah gave orders that all the Europeans should be shot, which sentence was carried into execution upon 40 persons, by a serjeant, who fired into the doors and windows on the prisoners, while they were at dinner in the hall of the factory. On the 6th November, in the same year, the city was stormed by major Adams, since which it has been under the British sway.

PATRAS, a city of the duchy of Clarence, in the Morea, near to the mouth of the gulf of Lepanto and cape Rio, called by the Turks Badra and Balabatra, situated about 700 paces from the gulf of Patras. Its citadel stands upon the top of a mountain. The emperor Augustus gave its inhabitants the privileges of citizens of Rome, because it was a place of retreat for his ships. It was a duchy in the time of the despots of the Morea, and one of those princes finding himself unable to keep it, sold it in 1408 to the Venetians, from whom the Turks took it in 1463. The famous Andrew Doria laid siege to Patras in 1533, and made himself master of it without much resistance. A little while after he secured this conquest by reducing the fort, which was forced to surrender, though formerly it held out a whole year against the emperor Constantine Paleologus about 1450. The next year after, the Turks returned with a numerous army, and

expelled the Venetians, who took it again in 1687. The Venetian army parted from Chino, July 20, 1687, and next day approached the neighbourhood of Patras; on the 24th a battle was fought between them and the Turks, where the latter were defeated, having almost 2000 killed upon the place, the rest saving themselves by flight. The garrison of Patra seeing this rout, forsook the town, carrying all the artillery and ammunition they had away with them. The bashaw Mahomet, who had 6,000 men near the castle of Romelia, fled also, together with the garrison. Guisulderem Mahomet, who was encamped near the castle of the Morea, did the same, and the city of Lepanto surrendered immediately without resistance.

PATRIARCHS, the name of the ancient fathers, chiefly those who lived before Moses, as Adam, Lamech, Noah, Shem, &c.

PAULUS ÆMYLIUS, a Roman, son of the Æmylius who fell at Cannæ, was celebrated for his victories, and received the surname of *Macedonicus* from his conquest of Macedonia. His first appearance in the field was attended with great success, and the barbarians that had revolted in Spain were reduced with the greatest facility under the power of the Romans. In his first consulship his arms were directed against the Ligurians, whom he totally subjected. When he had finally settled the government of Macedonia with ten commissioners from Rome, and after he had sacked 70 cities of Epirus, and divided the booty amongst his soldiers, Paulus returned to Italy. The riches which the Romans derived from this conquest were immense, and the people were freed from all taxes till the consulship of Hirtius and Pansa; but while every one of the citizens received some benefit from the victories of Paulus, the conqueror himself was poor, and appropriated for his own use nothing of the Macedonian treasures except the library of Ptolemy. In the office of censor, to which he was afterwards elected, Paulus behaved with the greatest moderation; and at his death, which happened about 168 years before the Christian era, not only the Romans, but their very enemies confessed, by their lamentations, the loss which they had sustained.

HISTORY.

PAUSANIAS, a Spartan general, who greatly signalized himself at the battle of Platæa, against the Persians. He was afterwards set at the head of the Spartan armies, and extended his conquests in Asia; but the haughtiness of his behaviour created him many enemies, and the Athenians soon obtained a superiority in the affairs of Greece. Pausanias was dissatisfied with his countrymen, and he offered to betray Greece to the Persians, if he received in marriage, as the reward of his perfidy, the daughter of their monarch. His intrigues were discovered by means of a youth, who was intrusted with his letters to Persia, and who refused to go, on the recollection that such as had been employed in that office before had never returned. The letters were given to the Ephori of Sparta, and the perfidy of Pausanias laid open. He fled for safety to a temple of Minerva, and as the sanctity of the place screened him from the violence of his pursuers, the sacred building was surrounded with heaps of stones, the first of which was carried there by the indignant mother of the unhappy man. He was starved to death in the temple, and died about 471 years before the Christian era.

PAVIA, a town of Austrian Italy, near which Francis I., king of France, was made prisoner by the Imperialists, in 1526. In 1527, the French, under count Lautrec, sacked the town; and in 1706 it was besieged by the Imperialists, and the French garrison were compelled to surrender. Pavia was retained by the Austrians till 1796, when it was taken by the French, and kept by them till 1814, when it reverted to Austria.

PEGU, an ancient city of Asia, captured by the Birman emperor Alompra in 1757, who levelled the walls, destroyed the city, and dispersed or led into captivity all the inhabitants.

PELOPIDAS, a celebrated general of Thebes, son of Hippocleus. No sooner had the interest of Sparta prevailed at Thebes, and the friends of liberty and national independence been banished from the city, than Pelopidas, who was in the number of the exiles, resolved to free his country from foreign slavery. His

plan was bold and animated, and his deliberations were slow. Meanwhile, Epaminondas, who had been left by the tyrants at Thebes, as being in appearance a worthless and insignificant philosopher, animated the youths of the city; and at last Pelopidas, with eleven of his associates, entered Thebes, and easily massacred the friends of the tyranny, and freed the country from foreign masters. After this successful enterprise, Pelopidas was unanimously placed at the head of the government; and so confident were the Thebans of his abilities as a general and a magistrate, that they successively re-elected him thirteen times to fill the honourable office of governor of Bœotia. Epaminondas shared with him the sovereign power, and it was to their valour and prudence that the Thebans were indebted for a celebrated victory at the battle of Leuctra. In a war which Thebes carried on against Alexander, tyrant of Phœæ, Pelopidas was appointed commander; but his imprudence in trusting himself unarmed into the enemy's camp, proved fatal to him. He was taken prisoner, but Epaminondas restored him to liberty. The perfidy of Alexander irritated him, and he was killed bravely fighting in a celebrated battle in which his troops obtained the victory, B. C. 364 years. Pelopidas is admired for his valour, as he never engaged an enemy without obtaining the advantage. The impoverished state of Thebes before his birth, and after his fall, plainly demonstrates the superiority of his genius and of his abilities; and it has been justly observed that with Pelopidas and Epaminondas, the glory and the independence of the Thebans rose and set.

PELOPONNESUS, a celebrated peninsula which comprehends the most southern parts of Greece. It received its name from Pelops, who settled there as the name indicates Πηλοπος νηος, (the island of Pelops). It had been called before, Argia, Pelasgia, and Argolis. and in its form, it has been observed by the moderns, highly to resemble the leaf of the plane tree. Its present name is Morea, which seems to be derived either from the Greek word *μορεα*,

or the Latin *morus*, which signifies a mulberry-tree, which is found there in great abundance. The Peloponnesus was conquered, some time after the Trojan war, by the Heracidae or descendants of Hercules, who had been forcibly expelled from it. The inhabitants of this peninsula rendered themselves illustrious like the rest of the Greeks, by their genius, their fondness for the fine arts, the cultivation of learning, and the profession of arms; but in nothing more than by a celebrated war which they carried on against Athens and her allies for twenty-seven years, and which from them received the name of the Peloponnesian war.

PENN (William), an English admiral, was born at Bristol in 1621. He distinguished himself greatly in the war between the English commonwealth and the Dutch; after which he went to the West Indies, where he captured the island of Jamaica. At the restoration he was knighted; and in 1665, he gained a victory over the Dutch fleet. He died in 1670.

PENN (William), son of the preceding, was born in London in 1644. After his release from prison, he continued his usual course of preaching, and was tried at the Old Bailey for preaching in Gracechurch-street. Though the jury acquitted him, the court ordered him and his companion, Mead, to be imprisoned in Newgate. In 1681, Charles II. granted him lands in North America, to which he gave the name of Pennsylvania: but not till he had previously entered into a treaty with the native Indians. He then drew up a constitution for the province, which he settled with Quakers, who founded the city called Philadelphia. Penn was a great favourite with James II., which induced many to think that he was secretly attached to popery; but from this charge he effectually cleared himself. After a life of great activity, he died at his seat in Berkshire, in 1718.

PENNSYLVANIA, was settled by the celebrated William Penn, in 1681. In the following year, Penn published his frame of government, by which the supreme power was to be vested in the governor and a general assembly. This form of go-

vernment was, after a short time, laid aside: and another, resembling those established in the other provinces, was adopted. In October, 1682, Penn, accompanied by about 2,000 settlers, arrived at New Castle, on the Delaware. His first step was to convoke an assembly, which adopted a constitution, and passed several important laws. Soon after his arrival, Penn summoned a council of the Indians, and treated with them respecting a cession of territory, in a manner that reflects great honour on his name, and continues to be referred to as a noble memorial of the benign effects which a conciliatory and Christian principle of policy can produce. The city of Philadelphia was soon built after the arrival of the first settlers, so that the second assembly at Pennsylvania was held there in April 1683. The charter having been twice altered, and the colonists remaining still discontented, Penn, in 1701, gave them a third charter. The provisions of this charter were in many respects similar to those of the English constitution. The delegates from the three lower counties on the Delaware refused to adopt it, and seceded from the assembly. The constitution thus adopted in Pennsylvania continued in force until the revolution. It was at Philadelphia that the declaration of the independence of the States was adopted and proclaimed. Upon this, the proprietary government was abrogated, and the people, by their representatives, framed a new constitution. Two parties then arose,—the republicans and the constitutionalists. The former finally triumphed in 1790, when a constitution, similar to that of the United States was adopted. In 1812, the sittings of the legislature were transferred from Lancaster (to which place they had been removed from Philadelphia) to Harrisburgh.

PENSACOLA, a town of West Florida, on the Gulf of Mexico, attacked by the Spaniards in 1781; but owing to a shell bursting at the door of a magazine in one of the advanced works, the town soon after surrendered. It was occupied in 1818 by an American force, as was said, in virtue of a treaty concluded between Spain and the United States, for the cession of the Floridas to the

HISTORY.

latter; but this act being disavowed by America, the forces were recalled.

PEPIN, surnamed the short, King of France, the first of the second race of the French monarchs, was the son of Charles Martel, and brother of Carloman. The two brothers divided the government between them after the death of their father, but Carloman retiring afterwards into Italy, Pepin remained sole manager, and carried his design farther; in short, seeing that all concurred to set the crown upon his head, and to dethrone Childeric III., he called a parliament that he might have their consent, which was unanimously granted him, and in the mean time deputed Bouchard, bishop of Vitzsburg, and Fulrad, abbot of St. Denys, and chaplain to the prince, to go to Rome, in order to be informed of Pope Zachary, who was the worthiest to be on the throne, he who took no care of the affairs of the kingdom, or he who, by his prudence and valour, governed it wisely, and kept it from the oppressions of the enemy. Zachary, who stood in need of Pepin's forces, declared in his favour. This answer being related in France, the bishops who were assembled at Soissons with Boniface, archbishop of Mayence, having the suffrage and universal consent of the grandees and people, crowned King Pepin on the 1st of May, 752. At the same time Childeric was deposed, and afterwards put into a monastery. After the performance of this ceremony, the new king put a stop to the revolt of his brother Grifon, and took Vannes. Pope Stephen II., who succeeded Zachary, finding himself extremely incommoded by the Lombards, had recourse to Pepin, whom he came into France to see. The king received him at the Castle of Poictier near Vitri in Parthois, and sent him to the Abbey of St. Denys; and some time after, this pope anointed and crowned him, with his two sons Charles and Carloman, at Ferrieres, July 28. 754. Next year Pepin went into Italy, and having forced Aistulphus, king of the same Lombards, to give up all that he had taken from the church of Rome, he returned into France, and sent back Pope Stephen into Italy; but the Lombards failing to keep their word, the king repassed

the Alps in 756, and constrained them to give all manner of satisfaction to the Pope of Rome; being come back into France, he spent the rest of his life in making war upon the Saxons, and upon Gaifre, or Waifer, duke of Aquitain, whom he defeated six or seven times, till the year 768, when this prince being killed by his own subjects, the king remained master of all his dominions. Some time after, he died of a dropy, the 24th of September, in the same year, aged 54; having reigned after his coronation by the pope 16 years.

PEPIN I. of that name, king of Aquitain, was the second son of Lewis the Debonnaire, and of Ermengarda, made king of Aquitain in 817, was afterwards head of the conspiracies against his father in 830 and 833: He died Dec. 13, or January, as some would have it, in the year 838, and was buried in the collegiate church of St. Radegonda in Poitiers.

PEPIN II., king of Aquitain, succeeded his father in his dominions; he conducted some troops to Lotharins I., his uncle, and served him at the battle of Fontenay in Auxerrois, June 25, in the year 841, and was afterwards taken by Sanchus, count of Gascony, who sent him to Charles the Bald, his uncle, who put him into a monastery; two years after which he found a way to escape, and joined himself to the Normans. He plundered Poitiers, and several other places, in 857; but the Aquitains fell upon him, and having made him prisoner, delivered him to the French, who condemned him as a traitor to his country, and to Christianity, and put him to death, in 864.

PEPIN, king of Italy, was the son of Charlemagne, and Hildegarda his second wife, born in the year 777. The king, his father, carried him to Rome, where he was baptized, and received the name of Carloman; which Pope Adrian I. changed into that of Pepin, when crowning him king of the Lombards, April 15, on Easter-day, in the year 781. He, on several occasions, gave proof of his courage and bravery. In 799, he beat the Huns, or Avars, and subdued Grimanid, duke of Beneventum, and died at Milan the 8th of July, in the year 810.

PEPIN, surnamed the Fat, mayor
P

of the palace in France, was the son of Ancheses, and grandson of St. Arnold, afterwards bishop of Metz. He began to govern in Austrasia, and was vanquished in the year 681, by Ebroin; but in 687, he defeated King Thierri, and acted his part so well, that he had all the authority in the two kingdoms, under Clovis III., Childebert and Dagobert III.; and it must be confessed, he was worthy of the empire of the Franks. He gained several battles against Berthairus, in 691; Radbord, duke of Freeland, in 707; Wiler, duke of Suabia, whom he defeated in 709, and 712. He died Dec. 16, in 714, in the castle of Jopit upon the Meuse, near Liege.

PERAMBAUCAM, a town of the south of India, memorable for the defeat and destruction of a fine British army, commanded by Colonel Baillie, in September, 1780, by Hyder Ali, when out of 86 British officers present 36 were killed, 34 wounded and the 16 taken prisoners. In August, 1781, this place was the scene of a second battle, fought between Hyder and the British under Sir Eyre Coote, when the latter were victorious.

PERCEVAL (Spencer), second son of John, Earl of Egmont, was born in 1762. He was educated at Harrow School, and next at Trinity College, Cambridge, where he took his master's degree in 1782, and the year following became a student of Lincoln's Inn. He commenced practice as a barrister in the King's Bench, from whence he removed to the Court of Chancery. In 1796 he was made king's counsel, and about the same time attracted the notice of Mr. Pitt, by a pamphlet, proving that an impeachment of the House of Commons does not abate by a dissolution of parliament. The same year he was returned for Northampton. In 1801 he was made solicitor-general, and the next year attorney-general. On the change of administration, in 1807, he was appointed chancellor of the exchequer in which situation he displayed great political talents, particularly in the settlement of the regency; but, unhappily he fell soon afterwards, in the lobby of the House of Commons, by the hands of an assassin, named Belingham, May 11, 1812.

PERGAMUS. The founder of the kingdom of Pergamus was Philetærus, a Paphlagonian eunuch, of mean descent. B.C. 283. He was succeeded by his brother Eumenes, who subdued a considerable part of Asia. On the demise of Eumenes, Attalus I. succeeded to the sovereignty, and assumed the title of king, in 241. He espoused the cause of Rome with uncommon vigour against Philip of Macedon, and died suddenly of an apoplexy. He was succeeded by his eldest son, Eumenes II., in 196, who renewed the alliance with Rome, and embraced every opportunity of signalizing himself on behalf of that republic. By his assistance, the Romans defeated Antiochus the Great at the battle of Magnesia, and therefore rewarded him by bestowing on him some of the provinces taken from that prince.—Attalus II. ascended the throne, in 159, and on his death, the crown devolved on the son of Eumenes.—Attalus III. succeeded in 138, soon exhibited that cruel and tyrannical disposition, which proved the scourge of his people, and has stamped indelible infamy on his character. At length he fell into a fever, of which he died. This tyrant having by his will left all his effects to the Romans, the republic seized on his kingdom, and reduced it to a province, under the name of Asia Propria. However, Aristonicus, the next heir, boldly put in his claim, and with the assistance of the Pergamians, bravely contended with the Romans for some time; but at length the whole kingdom was reduced to the state of a pretorian province, and divided into several districts, each depending on the metropolis where the Roman prætor resided.

PERICLES, an Athenian of a noble family, son of Xanthippus and Agariste. When he took a share in the administration of public affairs, he rendered himself popular by opposing Cimon, who was the favourite of the nobility; and to remove every obstacle which stood in the way of his ambition, he lessened the dignity and the power of the court of the Areopagus, which the people had been taught for ages to respect and to venerate. He also attacked Cimon, and caused him to be banished.

HISTORY.

by the ostracism. Thucydides also, who had succeeded Cimon on his banishment, shared the same fate, and Pericles remained for 15 years the sole minister, and as it may be said the absolute sovereign of a republic, which always showed itself so jealous of her liberties, and which distrusted so much the honesty of her magistrates. He made war against the Lacedæmonians, and obtained a victory over the Sicyonians near Nemæa, and waged a successful war against the inhabitants of Samos. The Peloponnesian war was fomented by his ambitious views, and when he had warmly represented the flourishing state, the opulence, and actual power, of his country, the Athenians did not hesitate a moment to undertake a war against the most powerful republics of Greece, a war which continued for 27 years, and which was concluded by the destruction of their empire, and the demolition of their walls. The arms of the Athenians were for some time crowned with success; but an unfortunate expedition raised clamours against Pericles, and the enraged populace attributed all their losses to him, and to make atonement for their ill success, they condemned him to pay 50 talents. This loss of popular favour by republican caprice, did not so much affect Pericles as the recent death of all his children; and when the tide of unpopularity was passed by, he condescended to come into the public assembly, and to view with secret pride the contrition of his fellow-citizens, who universally begged his forgiveness for the violence which they had offered to his ministerial character. He was again restored to all his honours; but the dreadful pestilence which had diminished the number of his family, proved fatal to him, and about 429 years before Christ, in his 70th year, he fell a sacrifice to that terrible malady, which robbed Athens of so many of her citizens. Pericles was for 40 years at the head of the administration, 25 years with others, and 15 alone; and the flourishing state of the empire during his government, gave occasion to the Athenians publicly to lament his loss, and venerate his memory. As

he was expiring, and seemingly senseless, his friends that stood around his bed expatiated with warmth on the most glorious actions of his life, and the victories which he had won; when he suddenly interrupted their tears and conversation, by saying that in mentioning the exploits that he had achieved, and which were common to him with all generals, they had forgot to mention a circumstance which reflected far greater glory upon him as a minister, a general, and above all, as a man. It is, says he, that not a citizen in Athens has been obliged to put on mourning on my account.

PERROT (Sir John), a statesman, was born in Pembrokeshire about 1527. Elizabeth sent him, in 1572, to Ireland, as president of Munster, where he suppressed a dangerous rebellion. He was afterwards appointed admiral of a fleet, to protect Ireland against the Spaniards. In 1583, he was made lord deputy of that kingdom, where his conduct gave such offence, that he was recalled, tried for high treason and sentenced to death. The queen, however, respited him; but he died in the Tower, in 1592.

PERSECUTIONS of the Church, a name given to troublesome times, during which the Christians have been harassed and tormented by the heathen emperors, or heretics supported by the favour of the sovereigns.—Persecution at Jerusalem, against St. Stephen, and other young Christians, at the instigation of Saul, named afterwards Paul; and was continued by Herod Agrippa against St. James and St. Peter, and the rest mentioned in the Acts of the Apostles, (ch. xii).—Under Nero: began the tenth year of his reign, and the 64th after the Nativity of Christ, occasioned by the burning of the city of Rome, which lasted for six days, from the 19th of July, till the 24th, and of which the Christians were falsely accused to be the authors. This persecution lasted till the death of Nero, which happened in the year 68.—Under Domitian: began the ninth year of his reign, and the 90th of our Lord, and was appointed by a very rigorous edict in 95. It lasted till the death of that emperor, who

was killed in Sept. 96.—Under Trajan: began the first year of his reign, and the 97th of the Christian calculation. That emperor put forth no edict against the Christians, but a general ordinance, by which he forbade all sorts of assemblies and societies; whence the governors of the provinces took occasion to persecute the Christians who assembled. And at last Tiberius, governor of Palestine, having written to Trajan that he had not executioners enough to put to death all the Christians that were there, Trajan, according to the testimony of Snidas, stopped the persecution in the year 116.—Persecution was under Adrian, and began in 118. This emperor published no edict against the Christians; but he gave orders, that all the governors of the provinces should observe the laws, and have a care of the new religions. Eight years after, that is, in the year 126, Quadrat, bishop of Athens, and Aristides, a Christian philosopher, having presented an apology to the emperor Adrian, he commanded them to cease tormenting the Christians; but they continued their persecutions till 129; and when that emperor returned to Rome, in 136, he caused some martyrs to be put to death.—Under Antoninus Pius: began in the year 138, although that emperor made no edict against the christians, yet his officers put many to death. In the year 153 the emperor, seeing all the Roman empire afflicted with famine, fire, inundations and earthquakes, was desirous to appease the gods, and amongst the rest the god of the christians, which obliged him to cease the persecution. However in 156 Bishop Hyginus was martyred.—Under Marcus Aurelius: began in the year 161, and ended in 174, after the victory that emperor gained over the Quadi and Marcomani, by the valour of the christian legion, called afterwards the thundering legion; then he forbade by an edict the punishing of any christian, for what concerned religion, and ordered that all their accusers should be burnt. However Bishop Soter was martyred in the year 177, three years before the death of Marcus Aurelius.—The christian church enjoyed peace under the Emperors Commodus, Pertinax and Didius, that is, from

180 till 193, for Commodus had a respect for Martia, who favoured the christians, and the other two emperors would not revoke of Marcus Aurelius's edict. The Persecution began under the Emperor Severus, in the year 190. He let the christians live in peace during the first six years of his reign: but the crimes of the Jews and Gnosticks, which were imputed to all the christians, caused a new persecution, which lasted till 211, at which time the emperor died.—The church enjoyed peace under the Emperors Caracalla and Geta. Macrin succeeded them in 217. And in his reign, Asclepiades, Bishop of Antioch, was put to death. Heliogabalus got the empire next, in the year 218; and in his time some infidels caused Pope Zephyrin to be put to death. Alexander Severus, who ascended the throne in 222, favoured the christians; but some, without his knowledge, were tormented, and patiently suffered martyrdom.—Under Maximinus, began in the year 235. That emperor ordered by edict, that the ministers of the church should be severely punished as the authors of the new doctrine; but the governors of the provinces extended their cruelty to others as well as to them.—The church enjoyed peace under the Emperors Gordian and Philip, that is, from the year 238, till 249.—Persecution was appointed in 249, by the Emperor Decius; and ceased at his death, in 251.—The Emperors Gallus and Volusian did not persecute the christians in the beginning of their reigns; but in 253 they condemned them to suffer cruel punishments, pursuant to the edict of Decius their predecessor.—Under Valerian and Gallian, began in 257; for these emperors having succeeded Gallus and Volusian in the year 254, immediately let the christians alone; and it was unknown to them that Lucius was martyred for the faith in 255; but in the year 257 they published an edict for the taking off all such as professed christianity, or rather renewed that of Decius. This persecution lasted three years and a half, that is, till 260.—During the last eight years of the reign of the Emperor Gallian, under the Emperors Claudius and Quintillus, and for the three first

HISTORY.

years of Aurelian, the church was freed from persecution, which was for the space of thirteen years.—Persecution was under Aurelian, and began in the third year of the reign of that emperor, which was in 273, and was continued till 275.

PERSIA, which is one of the most delightful countries in Asia, has obtained different denominations in different ages. It anciently extended about two thousand eight hundred English miles in length, from the Hellespont to the mouth of the Indus; and about two thousand miles in breadth, from Pontus to the mouth of the Arabian Gulf. The Persians are supposed to have descended from Ham, the son of Shem; and, in Scripture, they are sometimes denominated Elamites. The first king of Elam mentioned in Scripture is Chedorlaomer, who conquered many of the Asiatic provinces, and held the kings of Sodom, Gomorrah, Bela, Admah, and Zeboim, in subjection for twelve years. He was, however, vanquished by the patriarch Abraham, and lost the sovereignty of the Pentapolis. From this period to the reign of Cyrus, the history of Elam or Persia is clouded with fiction. Cyrus, who reigned B. C. 559, was styled the Great, on account of his extensive conquests, and his restoration of the captive Jews; was the son of Cambyses, a Persian grandee, and of Mandane, daughter of Astyages, king of the Medes. In the fortieth year of his age, he was called to the assistance of his uncle Cyaxares, who had ascended the throne of Media, and who appointed him generalissimo both of the Medes and Persians. The powerful alliance formed against the Medes in 557, induced the King of Armenia to withhold his usual tribute. Cyrus, therefore, marched against him, and compelled him to pay his tribute, and to furnish his customary quota of auxiliaries. The Egyptians, Greeks, Babylonians, Thracians, and other nations of Lesser Asia, having entered into an alliance against Cyaxares, chose Croesus, King of Lydia, to be their general. The confederates assembled in the vicinage of the river Pactolus, and advanced to Thymbra, whither Cyrus also marched with one hundred and thirty thousand troops,

besides three hundred armed chariots, several moving towers, and a considerable number of camels, upon which were mounted Arabian archers. The forces of Croesus, however, were twice as numerous as those of Cyrus, and amounted to four hundred thousand men. The battle was extremely bloody, and Cyrus himself was sometimes in imminent danger; but at length the confederates gave way on all sides, in 548. After this engagement, Cyrus took Sardis, the capital of Lydia, and made Croesus prisoner, whom he replaced on the throne. After subduing Syria and Arabia, he marched against Babylon, which he reduced after a siege of two years, and put an end to the Babylonian empire. About two years after the reduction of Babylon, Cyaxares died, and left the whole government of the empire to Cyrus, 534, who at this time published the famous decree by which the Jews were permitted to return to their native country, and restored all the vessels which Nebuchadnezzar had brought from Jerusalem. Cyrus was succeeded by his son Cambyses, who, soon after his accession to the throne, resolved to undertake an expedition against Egypt, and in that kingdom committed great cruelties and devastations. Cambyses was returning into Persia, to quell a revolt which had been occasioned by Smerdis, one of the magi, who pretended to be the brother of the king, when he accidentally received a wound from his sword, of which he died at Ecbatan in Syria. The counterfeit Smerdis was injured by his excessive precautions. Cyrus having formerly caused the ears of the magi to be cut off, this mutilation occasioned a discovery; and a conspiracy of seven of the principal Persian grandees being formed against Smerdis, he was assassinated. When the public tumults had subsided, the conspirators held a council on the kind of government which should be established, and after some debate, they determined in favour of monarchy. They agreed, therefore, to meet next morning on horseback, at an appointed place near the city, and to acknowledge him whose horse first neighed, as King of Persia. This plan was adopted, and Darius, the son of Hystaspes, by a stratagem

of his groom, obtained the sovereignty. Darius had scarcely entered the fifth year of his reign, when he was compelled to lead all his forces against Babylon, which had revolted, and made great preparations for sustaining a regular siege. To prevent the consumption of their provisions, the Babylonians collected all their old men, women, and children, and strangled them without distinction, only reserving one wife for each man, and a female servant to attend the business of the house. After Babylon had been besieged a year and eight months, it was taken by the contrivance of Zopyrus, who cut off his own nose and ears, and pretending that he was thus mangled by the Persian monarch for advising him to relinquish his undertaking, was admitted into the city by the inhabitants. Having settled the affairs of Babylon, Darius undertook an expedition against the Scythians, B. C. 514, on pretence of revenging the calamities which that people had brought upon Asia, about one hundred and twenty years before. By means of a bridge of boats, he transported his army across the Bosphorus, and subdued Thrace; and having appointed his fleet to join him at the Ister, or Danube, he also passed over that river into Scythia. The Scythians avoided an engagement, and retired before him, laying waste the country, and filling up all the wells and springs, till the Persian troops were quite exhausted with tedious and fatiguing marches. At last, Darius resolved to abandon this wild enterprise, and causing a great number of fires to be lighted, he left the old men and invalids in the camp, and marched with all expedition to regain the pass of the river. The king re-crossed the Danube, and returned into Thrace, where he left Megabyzus, one of his generals, to complete the conquest of that country, and, repassing the Bosphorus, took up his quarters at Sardis. Darius having declared his son Xerxes, who was born after his father's exaltation to the throne, his successor in the kingdom, this prince continued the preparations against Greece, B. C. 485. He entered into an alliance with the Carthaginians, who were to attack the Greek colonies in Sicily and Italy, and who raised an army

of three hundred thousand men in Spain, Gaul, Italy, and Africa. To prevent a repetition of the former disaster which befel the Persian fleet, Xerxes commanded a passage for his galleys to be cut through mount Athos. He also ordered a bridge of boats to be laid across the Hellespont for the passage of his troops into Europe. Having made the necessary preparations, the Persian monarch began his march against Greece, B. C. 480, with a land army of one million eight hundred thousand men. His fleet consisted of twelve hundred and seven large ships, and three thousand galleys and transports, which contained five hundred and seventeen thousand six hundred and ten men; so that the whole body of forces amounted to two millions three hundred and seventeen thousand six hundred and ten. This number was so much increased on the march by such nations as made their submissions, that Xerxes arrived at Thermopylæ with two millions six hundred and forty one thousand six hundred and ten men, besides servants, eunuchs, women, &c. The Grecian fleet was victorious over that of Persia in some partial engagements, and afterwards completely at the battle of Salamis, in which the dispersion was so general, and the defeat so decisive, that Xerxes, afraid of not being able to preserve a single vessel to carry him from Europe, made an expedition retreat, and was conveyed into Asia in a small boat. This success inspired the other Greeks with new courage; and they joined the Athenians and Lacedæmonians in harassing the Persians on all sides. The land-army ventured a decisive battle at Plataea in Boeotia, B. C., 479, where, out of three hundred thousand, only three thousand Persians escaped. The dissolute conduct of Xerxes rendered him obnoxious to his subjects; and he was murdered by his chief favourite, Artabanus, who persuaded Artaxerxes, the king's third son, that Darius, his eldest brother, had been guilty of the crime of parricide. Artaxerxes, therefore, killed Darius, and finding that Artabanus entertained a design against him, he ordered him to be put to death, B. C. 465. The new monarch having thus removed one formidable competitor, endeavoured

HISTORY.

to secure his crown against the attempts of his brother, Hystaspes, who held the government of Bactria. Artaxerxes attacked and defeated the adherents of Artabanus. He then sent an army into Bactria, which had declared in favour of Hystaspes; and though victory was doubtful in the first battle, Artaxerxes was successful in the second; and firmly established himself in the empire. Artaxerxes died in peace, and left the succession to Xerxes, B. C. 424, the only son he had by his queen, though by his concubines he had seventeen, among whom were Sogdianus, Ochus, and Arsites. Xerxes II. had assumed the diadem only forty-five days, when, being inebriated at a public entertainment, Sogdianus seized an opportunity to assassinate him. The regicide was scarcely seated on the throne, when Ochus having declared his intention of revenging the murder of Xerxes, Sogdianus was deserted by all his subjects, and finally doomed to expiate his crimes by a cruel death. Ochus, being now invested with supreme authority, assumed the name of Darius, and is mentioned by historians under the appellation of Darius Nothus, or Darius the bastard. In this reign, the Egyptians shook off the Persian yoke; and the Medes also revolted. Darius, having settled the affairs of the rebellious provinces, bestowed the supreme command of Asia Minor on his youngest son, Cyrus, B. C. 407, who was ordered to assist the Lacedæmonians against the Athenians. This order, however, soon exposed the weakness of the king's politics; for the Lacedæmonians, after conquering the Athenians, invaded the Persian provinces in Asia. Darius died, B. C. 404, and left the imperial diadem to his son, Arsaces, who assumed the name of Artaxerxes, and received the appellation of Mnemon, on account of his extraordinary memory. Cyrus resolved to exert all his abilities to drive his brother from the throne, and having procured a number of Grecian auxiliaries, marched his troops to the plains of Cunaxa, in the province of Babylon, where he found Artaxerxes, at the head of nine hundred thousand men, ready for battle. A sanguinary contest immediately

commenced; and Cyrus, on seeing his brother engaged him with such fury as seemed to change the battle into a single combat. The rebellious prince, however, fell by the hands of the king and his guards. The ten thousand Greeks, under the conduct of Xenophon, effected that memorable retreat, which has always been considered as a noble achievement among military operations.

On the death of Darius, three of the princes, viz., Ariaspes, Ochus, and Arsames, became competitors for the crown.

Ochus practised so effectually on the credulity of Ariaspes, that he poisoned himself; and Arsames was assassinated by the son of Tiribazus. These acts of cruelty overwhelmed Artaxerxes with such insupportable grief that he died.

Ochus concealed the death of the king, and assumed the administration of government in the name of Artaxerxes. He caused himself, in the name of the king, to be declared his successor; and after ten months, he published the death of Artaxerxes. An insurrection in several of the provinces immediately followed; but the leaders of the confederacy disagreeing among themselves, the rebellion terminated without any effusion of blood. Ochus no sooner possessed absolute authority, than he began to fill his capital and the whole empire with carnage and misery. He caused Ocha, his own sister and mother-in-law, to be buried alive; shut up one of his uncles, with a hundred of his sons and grandsons, in a court of the palace, where they were massacred by a body of archers; and put all the branches of the royal family to death. This insupportable tyranny occasioned another rebellion, which was not quelled without much difficulty. This revolt was scarcely terminated, when the Sidonians and other natives of Phœnicia joined the Cypriots and Egyptians in a confederacy against Persia. Ochus effected the reduction of Sidon, and compelled all the other cities to make submissions. He also reduced the city of Jericho, and having concluded a peace with the kings of Cyprus, he led his victorious troops into Egypt which he completely subdued. Ochus passed

his time amidst every species of luxury and voluptuousness. Bagoas, an Egyptian eunuch, prevailed on the king's physician to administer a strong poison, instead of medicine, to his royal benefactor. Having thus accomplished his purpose, he caused the flesh of the king to be cut in pieces and thrown to dogs and cats. He then placed on the throne Arses, the youngest prince, and condemned all the rest to death. But Arses, sensible of the slavery in which he was held, concerted measures to free himself from it. Bagoas, therefore, effected his destruction in the second year of his reign, B. C. 336, and bestowed the imperial diadem on Darius Codomannus, who was a descendant of Darius Nothus, and at that time governor of Armenia. This prince, however, had not long enjoyed the sovereignty, when the ambitious eunuch determined to remove him, and with this design provided a deleterious potion; but Darius, being apprized of his danger, compelled Bagoas to drink the poison, and thus established himself on the throne.—In the second year of this reign, Alexander, king of Macedon, crossed the Hellespont at the head of a well-disciplined army, with the design of revenging the injuries which Greece had received from the Persians during three hundred years. On his arrival at the Granicus, he found on the opposite bank a numerous Persian army, amounting to 100,000 foot, and 10,000 horse. Though Alexander had not more than 30,000 foot, and 5,000 horse, he crossed the Granicus at the head of his cavalry, and attacked with impetuosity the whole Persian force. An obstinate conflict ensued, in which the Persians were defeated with the loss of 20,000 foot and 2,000 horse, and in which Alexander exposed his life to the most imminent danger. The invasion having assumed a serious aspect, Darius led his army into Cilicia, B. C. 333, and advanced to the city of Issus, near which Alexander drew up his troops on an advantageous ground. Darius retreated precipitately to the adjoining mountains, where he mounted a horse, and continued his flight. Alexander was now entire master of the field, and of the Persian camp, in which the mother, wife, and son of

Darius, were taken prisoners. In 331, B. C., the Persian monarch, having assembled a numerous army, prepared for battle in a large plain near the city of Arbela, on the confines of Persia. The Persians commenced the attack, but were totally routed, and Darius was again compelled to seek safety in flight. Darius, who had sought an asylum at Ecbatan, in Media, had collected another army, with which he intended to make a last effort, B. C. 330. He was, however, prevented by Beasus, governor of Bactria, and Nabarzanes, a Persian nobleman, who entered into a conspiracy against him, and binding him with golden chains, shut him up in a covered cart, and retreated precipitately towards Bactria. They intended, if Alexander pursued them, to deliver up the object of his resentment; or, if they escaped the Macedonian conqueror, to murder Darius, and usurping the imperial diadem, to renew the war. When Alexander was informed of the base designs of Beasus and Nabarzanes, he advanced with a small body of light-armed cavalry; and, as soon as the King of Macedon came within sight of the enemy, they immediately took to flight, and having discharged their darts at the unfortunate Persian monarch, left him weltering in his blood. Thus died Darius, in the fiftieth year of his age, and sixth of his reign, and with him ended the Persian empire, after it had existed 206 years. After the Persians had been subject to the Parthians for the space of 475 years, Artaxares, a Persian of mean descent and spurious birth, excited a revolt among his countrymen; and, the reigning monarch being dethroned and put to death, the Persian empire was restored. The emperor Alexander Severus, attacked and defeated Artaxares, and wrested from him several of his provinces. Artaxares, however, recovered these provinces, and, after swaying the sceptre with great reputation for the space of twelve years, died in peace. He was succeeded by his son Sapores, A. D. 242, who was equally famous for his personal strength and mental abilities, but who was of a fierce, cruel, and untractable disposition. Sapores left his kingdom to his son Hormisdas,

HISTORY.

who, refusing to interfere in the affairs of the Romans, died in peace, A. D. 273, after a reign of one year and ten days. His son Varanes I. enjoyed the regal dignity three years, without being disturbed by the Romans, or attempting to extend the limits of his empire. Varanes II. meditated an invasion of the Roman provinces, A. D. 277, but on the approach of the Emperor Probus, he abandoned his design, and sued for peace. Varanes III. was denominated Segansaa, or king of the Segans, and was succeeded by Narses, A. D. 294, a prince of great abilities and resolution. He died in the seventh year of his reign, and was succeeded by Miadates, whose actions were not sufficiently interesting to claim the attention of posterity. Sapor II. his successor, A. D. 308, was a zealous assertor of the dignity of the Persian crown, and endeavoured to unite all the provinces of the ancient empire under his authority. This restless and ambitious monarch was succeeded by Artaxerxes, A. D. 380, who lived in amity with the Romans, and enjoyed the regal dignity about four years. Varanes IV. succeeded his father Sapor, and governed his dominions eleven years. Isdigertes was deservedly celebrated for his virtuous disposition, and, at the death of the Emperor Arcadius, A. D. 401, was intrusted with the care of his son Theodosius II., and the Roman empire. He was succeeded by his son Varanes V., A. D. 421. In his reign, the indiscreet zeal of a Christian, who set fire to a Persian temple, renewed the war with the Romans. The Persian monarch obtained the assistance of the Saracens, and, notwithstanding the defeats which he experienced from the Romans, he rendered even victory disadvantageous to the enemy. Varanes VI. was next invested with the diadem, A. D. 442, which he wore for seventeen years and four months. His son and successor, Perozes, being incensed against the Euthalites or White Huns, marched an army into their country; but the Euthalites cutting off his retreat, obliged him to swear that he would never more invade them. Perozes, however, assembled his forces, and marched a

second time towards the northern frontiers; but, the Euthalites rushing unexpectedly upon him, slew and took captive most of his army, and put him to death. The nobles bestowed the crown on his brother Valens, who, at the expiration of four years, fell a victim to the oppressive cares of government. He was succeeded by Cavades, the son of Perozes, A. D. 486. On the death of Cavades, his son Chosroes ascended the throne, A. D. 531. The Persian monarch, however, was almost constantly engaged in hostilities with the eastern empire; but, the Romans having given him a complete defeat, he was so deeply affected with his ill success, that he sickened and died. He was succeeded by his son Hormisdas, A. D. 579. Hormisdas was dethroned by a person of the royal blood, named Bindoes, who had been loaded with chains for a slight offence. The unfortunate monarch being heard in his own defence, recommended his younger son Hormisdas as his successor, in preference to his elder son Chosroes. The assembly, however, at the instigation of Bindoes, caused his son Hormisdas, and the prince's mother, to be cut in pieces; and ordered the eyes of the deposed monarch to be put out with a hot iron. Chosroes II. ascended the throne, A. D. 592. On the death of the Emperor Mauritius, he took up arms against the Romans, A. D. 605, and such was his success, that, in nine years, he plundered the provinces of Syria, Mesopotamia, Phœnicia, Armenia, Cappadocia, Galatia, Paphlagonia, and all the country as far as Chalcedon. He also ravaged Judea; pillaged the city of Jerusalem; and sold ninety Christians to the Jews, who put them all to death. These extraordinary conquests induced him to make an expedition into Egypt; he reduced Alexandria and all the country toward Libya, and added the empire of Africa to that of Asia. He was defeated in several battles, and finally murdered in a dungeon by command of his own son Siroes having ascended the throne of Persia, A. D. 628, concluded a treaty of perpetual peace with Heraclius; but, he was murdered by one of his generals, after twelve months reign. His

son, Ardeshir, was next invested with the government, but was assassinated in the seventh month of his reign by Barbas, commander-in-chief of the Persian forces, who seized the diadem for himself. A civil war, however, crushed the ambitious projects of the usurper, and elevated to the throne Isdigerdes II., A.D. 630. The reign of this prince was short and unhappy. He defended his country with becoming resolution against the Saracens, till the spirits of his subjects were entirely broken by repeated defeats. At last he was slain in battle; and, in him ended the royal line of Artaxares. With his death terminated the Persian empire, which had maintained a splendid existence for upwards of 400 years.

The founder of the dynasty of Shahs in Persia, was Ismael, surnamed Sophi, who was descended in the direct male line from Ali, the son-in-law of Mohammed. In 1500 there was a great number of the sectaries of Ali among the Mohammedans of Asia. Ismael assembled about 700, who were attached to his family; and attacking his father's murderer, slew him in battle, and took possession of his dominions. He was a monster of inhumanity and cruelty, and reigned 23 years; during which period began the struggle for power between the Persians and the Turks. Ismael was succeeded by his son Tahmasp, A.D. 1523. He was succeeded by Ismael II. his son, A.D. 1575. Mohammed, the brother and successor of Ismael, had spent his life in privacy, wholly devoted to religious duties; and assumed the sceptre, A.D. 1577. Mohammed left three sons, the two eldest of whom, Hamzeh and Ismael, merely appeared upon the throne, about 1584, and are scarcely numbered among the emperors. By the contrivance of a vizier, named Kouli Khan, Shah Abbas prosecuted the war against the Turks, which he conducted in person, with great success and glory; retook Tauris, and defeated his enemies in several engagements. In his dying moments, he sent for four of the chief lords of his council to his bed side, and told them that it was his will that his grandson, Mirza, should succeed him, and assume the name of his father. After assembling all the lords in the neighbourhood of

Ispahan, they crowned him A.D. 1628. On his accession to the throne, he assumed the name of Sali. This prince was a second Nero, who, bearing in his countenance every mark of clemency and goodness cherished in his heart the vicious inclinations of a savage and inexorable tyrant. He reigned 18 years, and left a son named Abbas, who succeeded him, and whom his father had ordered to be deprived of sight; but the compassion of the executioner had spared him. Under Abbas II. A.D. 1642, intoxication, passion, and an uncontrollable love of power, rendered life not more secure than under his brutal father. On the death of Abbas, his eldest son Sali was immediately saluted emperor, A.D. 1666, but afterwards assumed the name of Solyman. Solyman died a natural death, after a reign of 20 years, A.D. 1694; and was succeeded by his son Shah Husseyn, the most merciful and most unfortunate prince of his race. History furnishes few instances of a dissolution so entire as that of the kingdom of Persia, under the feeble and inactive Husseyn. At length, after a series of disasters, Husseyn was obliged to abdicate the throne to Mahmud. Before this ceremony took place, the king travelled through the principal streets of Ispahan on foot, deploring the misfortunes of his reign, and consoling the people who surrounded him, by endeavouring to excite in them hopes of better fortune under a new government. In dispossessing Husseyn, A.D. 1723, Mahmud avenged himself of all those, who, by negligence, ignorance, party-spirit, cowardice, or treason, had contributed to the ruin of the state. The conduct of Mahmud tended to excite the odium of his subjects; and he saw his projects defeated, and himself beginning to be treated with general hatred. In order to avert these misfortunes, which he imputed to the anger of heaven, he imposed on himself a sort of penance, which continued 15 days, and which had the effect of completely deranging his senses. His captains, seeing him at the point of death, turned their thoughts on Ashraf, who refused the crown, except the head of his cousin Mahmud should be brought to him.

HISTORY.

Mahmud, therefore, who could not have lived many hours longer, was put to death; and the destroyer of the dynasty of the Shahs enjoyed his triumph only two years. Ashraf ordered all the guards, ministers, and confidants of Mahmud, to be executed; and did not spare even those who had placed him on the throne. About this time, Kouli Khan became distinguished; and having tendered his services to Tahmasp, in three campaigns he made him master of all the possessions of the Afghans. Ashraf offered to abdicate the throne, and to restore the treasures which he had inherited after Mahmud's death; but Kouli Khan, refusing to listen to any terms of accommodation, pursued his enemy even to death, and with him ended the transitory dynasty of the Afghans. Tahmasp was re-established on the throne by the power of Kouli Khan, A.D. 1730; who, in a short time deposed him, and introduced into his place his infant son, by the name of Abbas III. The infant emperor dying within six months, Kouli Khan was elected to the vacant throne; and, on his accession, took the name of Nadir Shah. The reign of this prince was marked with glory and conquest. His government was despotic and tyrannical; and he formed the design of a general massacre of the principal Persians. He conquered Usbec Tartary; but was not so successful against the Daghistan Tartars. He beat the Turks in several engagements, but was unable to take Bagdad. His conduct became so intolerable, that he was assassinated in his own tent, in the year 1747. Many pretenders, upon his death, started up; but the fortunate candidate was Kerim Khan, who was crowned at Tauris, in 1763. His death gave rise to another disputed succession, with civil wars, which lasted 14 years. At length, Aga Mohammed raised himself to the sovereignty. After a short reign he died, and transmitted the throne to his nephew, who assumed the title of Tuteh Ali Shah, an accomplished prince; under whose sway, Persia may for a time enjoy some tranquillity.

PERTH, a town of Scotland, supposed to have been founded by Agricola the Roman general during his

invasion of Scotland. On Feb. 21, 1437, king James I. was murdered here in a monastery, by Robert Graham. In 1644 Montrose seized on Perth, after the battle of Tibbermear: it was likewise the head-quarters of the Earl of Marr and the Pretender, in 1715.

PERU was discovered by Pizarro, in 1524. The battle of Caxamarca, on the 10th of November, 1532, decided the fate of Peru; and Atahualpa, the captive monarch, was treacherously and inhumanly put to death by the cruel and avaricious Spaniards. Pizarro, after having defeated *Paula Inca*, the brother of Atahualpa, entered Cusco, the capital. Quito was next taken. In 1533, Pizarro founded the city of Lima, and employed himself in establishing a form of government. While thus employed, a new enemy started up,—the ambitious Almagro; who, in a decisive battle fought near Cusco, was taken prisoner and beheaded. Two years afterwards, Pizarro was assassinated, on the 26th of June, 1541. The viceroyalty of Peru, being transmitted down from one governor to another, in a line directed more by the fortunes of war, and the vicissitudes of events, than by any regular plan of succession, terminated in June 1821, by the capture of Lima; and, by a declaration published in the next month, the independence of Peru was declared to be the wish of the people.

PETER the Great, czar of Russia, was the son of Alexis Michaelowitz, and born May 30, 1672. On the decease of his half-brother, Feodor, in 1682, Peter was proclaimed czar, in conjunction with John, his eldest brother, who died in 1696, and left him in full possession of the empire. While a youth, he conceived those projects of improvement which have stamped immortality upon his name. He entered into the military life, and performed the duties of a common soldier, till, by rising gradually from the ranks to the command of a body of troops, he exhibited the duty of obedience, and the necessity of discipline, in his own example. He visited Holland under a disguised name, in 1696. Here he worked as a common labourer in the dock-yard, and then came to England. While

thus engaged, the news of an insurrection, excited by the Princess Sophia, obliged him to return to Russia, where he severely punished the conspirators, and confined his sister in a nunnery. In 1700 he declared war against Charles XII., of Sweden, and though unsuccessful at first, he afterwards gained such advantages as induced him to build a fortress on the Baltic, called, after him, Petersburg. In 1709, the czar obtained the victory of Pultowa, after which he conquered Livonia, Ingria, Finland, and part of Pomerania. But he had a narrow escape, when engaged in a contest with the Turks, who surrounded his army on the banks of the Pruth: from which perilous state he was extricated by the Empress Catherine, who entered into a treaty of peace with the grand vizier. In 1716, the czar and his consort visited Denmark and Holland, where he left Catherine while he made a journey to Paris. He died of a strangury, Jan. 28, 1725, and was succeeded by the czarina Catherine.

PETER the Hermit, a French enthusiast of the 11th century, who made a pilgrimage to Palestine, and, on his return to Europe, preached up the crusade, for the recovery of the holy city from the infidels. His success was such as might have been expected in an ignorant age. He passed through Hungary with an immense crowd of followers, thousands of whom perished miserably. Peter, however, entered Syria, and displayed great bravery at the taking of Jerusalem. He then returned to France, where he died, in the abbey of Nourmoutier, of which he was the founder.

PETERSBURG (St), the capital of the Russian empire, begun by Peter, after the battle of Pultawa, in 1709, and progressively extended and embellished by his successors, particularly by the Empress Catherine, who first made it the permanent abode of the court. Previous to 1703, its site contained only two miserable huts, but it is now considered one of the finest cities in Europe.

PETITION of Right. Under this name, the commons in the reign of Charles I., enumerated the various

encroachments on their constitutional liberties. The terms in which this petition was drawn up, seem to have been just and reasonable, but they infringed the prerogative, in regard to which Charles was such a stickler, and it was not without much difficulty and many evasions, that the royal assent could be obtained to this intended security against future invasions of liberty.

PHARAOH, a name common to all the kings of Egypt since Amasis, whom others call Amosis, or Themois, and signifies a king in the ancient language of the Egyptians, according to Josephus. In the Coptic language *Phi-ouro* still signifies *King*. And this name might have been corrupted from Pharaoh. There are 10 Pharaohs mentioned in scripture. The first was in the time of Abraham, (Gen. xii). The second in the time of Joseph, who interpreted the dreams of Pharaoh, (Gen. xli). The third, who ill requited the services of Joseph, and mal-treated the Israelites, (Exod. i). The fourth to whom Moses and Aaron were sent, and who was drowned in the Red Sea, (Exod. xiv). The fifth Pharaoh mentioned in holy writ, reigned in the time of David. The sixth was father-in-law to Solomon, or, according to some, the same with the former. The seventh was Pharaoh-Shishach, (2 Chron. xi. and xiv). The eighth, Pharaoh Sui, or So, (2 Kings xvii). The ninth, Necho, or Necho, (2 Kings xxvii). The tenth, Hophzah, or Vaphres, (Jerem. xxxvii). It is very difficult to know the true names of these Pharaohs because the Egyptian history is very much confused. And to say nothing but of the Pharaoh that was drowned in the Red Sea, Calvisius says it was Orus; others, the Amosis of Clement Alexandrinus, or the Bchoris of Manethon. This Pharaoh is called Cenches by Eusebius, Secmosis by Philo, Amenophis by Usher, Ramesses by some others, and Acherres by Scaliger.

PHARSALIA, or PHARSA, a town of Greece, near which is the plain memorable for the defeat of Pompey by Cæsar.

PHILIP (Marcus Julius), surnamed the Arabian, was born at Bostra in Arabia, advanced himself in the

HISTORY.

army and became captain of the guards to the Emperor Gordian III. whom he assassinated in his horse-litter, as he returned from his expedition against the Persians. After this parricide, he was proclaimed emperor in 244. In the mean time he endeavoured to efface this ignominy by many good laws, and a peace which he concluded with Sapor king of Persia, and then returning to Rome, he celebrated the secular games in 248, with great magnificence. But Decius, who had pretensions to the empire, assassinated him at Verona, in 249.

PHILIP I. king of France, born in 1053, was the son of Henry I. crowned at Rheims, May 29, 1059. His jealousy against William the Conqueror laid the foundations of the wars between England and France. He died at Milan, July 29, 1106, having reigned 49 years.

PHILIP II. surnamed the Conqueror, was born August 22, 1165. He began to reign in 1180. He made war with the English; but some time after, he undertook the crusade in 1190. He took Acre, defeated seventeen thousand Saracens, and returned about Christmas, 1191. In 1214, the Emperor Otho IV. Count of Flanders, and several confederate princes raised an army of 150,000 men against him, when the king engaged them at Bovines, and gained the victory. The king fought with great intrepidity at Bovines, and had his horse killed under him. He died at Mante upon the Seine, July 14, 1223, after a reign of 42 years.

PHILIP III. surnamed the Hardy, was the son of St. Louis. Having conquered the Saracens, he returned to France, where he was crowned in 1271. Philip went in person against the Arragonese, and took Gironne, and in his return died of a malignant fever at Perpignan in the 16th year of his reign, aged 41.

PHILIP IV. surnamed the Fair, as also le Grand, born at Fontainebleau in 1268, and succeeded his father Philip III. in 1285. The ill conduct of James of Castillon, Earl of St. Paul, caused a sedition at Bruges. The king sent an army to reduce it, under the command of Robert earl of Artois; but they were

defeated at the battle of Courtray in 1302. Philip recovered himself in some measure again, especially on the 18th of August 1304, in the memorable battle at Mons in Puelle, where above 25,000 Flemings were slain. At length, peace was made at Athels, in 1305. He died at Fontainebleau, in 1314, after a reign of 29 years.

PHILIP V. surnamed the Long, was youngest son to Philip the Fair, succeeded to the crown in 1317, but died after a reign of five months. He renewed his alliance with the Scots in 1318, and expelled the Jews out of his dominions. He died at Long-Champ, aged 28 years, whereof he had reigned five, one month and 14 days.

PHILIP VI. the courtier, succeeded in 1328. Having a dispute with Edward of England, war broke out in 1338. Next year Cambray was besieged by the English. The king had taken the part of Charles de Blois, his nephew, and had received homage from Bretany, which John de Montfort pretended to; but he joined King Edward, who made a descent into Normandy, took Caen, and gained the victory at Cressy, in which 11 princes, 80 barons, 1200 knights, and 30,000 soldiers were slain. The English, flushed with this victory, took Calais, which continued in their hands 210 years, till 1558. Philip VI. died at Nogent le Roy, August 22, 1350, aged 57, the 23d of his reign. He had great courage and resolution; but was blamed for introducing the imposition upon salt. The English called him King of the Salick Law.

PHILIP I. surnamed the Fair, King of Spain and Navarre, was born at Bruges, June 23, 1478, and succeeded to the throne in 1504. He died at the age of 27, at Burgos, in 1506.

PHILIP II. born in 1527, was son of the Emperor Charles V., and Isabel of Portugal. He made a league with the English, and sent 40,000 men into Picardy, who gained a victory over 19,000 French at St. Quintin in 1557. This misfortune was repaired by the taking of Calais, Thionville and Dunkirk; and was afterwards followed by a peace made at Chateau Cambresis in 1559. In

1580. Philip made himself master of the kingdom of Portugal; and his troops contributed to the defeat of the Turks at the battle of Lepanto. He also reduced the Moors who revolted against him in 1561. He subdued Pignon or Peunon de Velez in Africa, and the isles which from him are called, the Philippine Islands. After this, Philip set out a fleet of above fourscore ships, which was called, the Invincible Armada, against Queen Elizabeth of England. They sailed from Lisbon, May 29, 1588, and were destroyed partly by storms, and partly by valour of the English. This loss is said to have amounted to 10,000 men and 60 ships; but Philip received the news of it without the least discomposure. On the news being communicated to him, he answered calmly, that he thanked God, that he was able to rig out such another. Philip died at the Escorial, Sept. 13, 1598, aged 71.

PHILIP III. born at Madrid, April 14, 1578, succeeded his father Philip II., in 1591, reformed the courts of judicature, expelled the Moors out of Spain, and made a peace in the Low Countries, and afterwards lived in repose. He died on the 31st of March 1621, in the 43d year of his age, and 23d of his reign.

PHILIP IV. born in 1605, and succeeded his father in 1621. In 1634, the Dutch, who had sent two armies into the Indies, gained two considerable advantages; for the one defeated the Spanish fleet near Lima, and the other took the city of St. Salvador in Peru. In 1635, a rupture took place with France, in consequence of the elector of Trier having been maltreated, whence arose the battle of Aveins in the duchy of Luxemburg, where the Mareschals de Chatillon and de Brege defeated Prince Thomas, general of the Spanish army, and left 6000 slain upon the field. Philip died Sept. 17, 1665.

PHILIP I, son of Argæus, succeeded his father on the throne of Macedonia, and reigned 36 years, B. C. 640. The second of that name was the fourth son of Amyntas, king of Macedonia. He was sent to Thebes as an hostage by his father, where he learnt the art of war under

Epaminondas, and studied with the greatest care the manners and the pursuits of the Greeks. He was recalled to Macedonia, and ascended the throne. The neighbouring nations ridiculing the youth and inexperience of the new king of Macedonia, appeared in arms; but Philip soon convinced them of their error. Unable to meet them as yet in the field of battle, he suspended their fury by presents, and soon turned his arms against Amphipolis, a colony tributary to the Athenians. Amphipolis was conquered, and added to the kingdom of Macedonia; and Philip meditated no less than the destruction of a republic which had rendered itself so formidable to the rest of Greece, and had even claimed submission from the princes of Macedonia. He made himself master of a Thracian colony, to which he gave the name of Philippi. In the midst of his political prosperity, Philip did not neglect the honour of his family. Every thing seemed now to conspire to his aggrandizement; and historians have observed, that Philip received in one day the intelligence of three things which could gratify the most unbounded ambition, and flatter the hopes of the most aspiring monarch,—the birth of a son, an honourable crown at the Olympic games, and a victory over the barbarians of Illyricum. But all these increased rather than satiated his ambition; he declared his inimical sentiments against the power of Athens, and the independence of all Greece, by laying siege to Olynthus, a place which, on account of its situation and consequence, would prove most injurious to the interests of the Athenians, and most advantageous to the intrigues of every Macedonian prince. The Athenians sent 17 vessels and 2,000 men to the assistance of Olynthus, but the money of Philip prevailed over all their efforts. The greatest part of the citizens suffered themselves to be bribed by the Macedonian gold, and Olynthus surrendered to the enemy, and was instantly reduced to ruins. In his attempts to make himself master of Eubœa, Philip was unsuccessful; and Phocion, who despised his gold as well as his meanness, obliged him to evacuate an island

HISTORY.

whose inhabitants were as insensible to the charms of money, as they were unmoved at the horrors of war, and the bold efforts of a vigilant enemy. From Eubœa he turned his arms against the Scythians, but the advantages which he obtained over this indigent nation were inconsiderable. He advanced far into Boœtia, and a general engagement was fought at Chæronea. The fight was long and bloody, but Philip obtained the victory. At the battle of Chæronea the independence of Greece was extinguished; and Philip, unable to find new enemies in Europe, formed new enterprises, and meditated new conquests. He was nominated general of the Greeks against the Persians, and was called upon to revenge those injuries which Greece had suffered from the invasions of Darius and of Xerxes. But he was stopped in the midst of his warlike preparations; he was stabbed by Pausanias as he entered the theatre, at the celebration of the nuptials of his daughter Cleopatra. He was murdered in the 47th year of his age, and the 24th of his reign, about 336 years before the Christian era.

PHILIPPA, wife of Edward III., took David king of Scotland prisoner in 1346. In 1347, she crossed over the sea to her consort, who was engaged in the siege of Calais; the inhabitants of which place were reduced to the last extremity, but Edward would only consent to suspend the general destruction, on condition that six of the most considerable citizens should be given up in atonement for the obstinacy of the rest, and that they should present to him, with ropes about their necks, the keys of the city. While the wretched people gazed on each other, lost in despair, Estace de St. Pierre offered to encounter death for the safety of his friends. Animated by his example, four more entreated to share the glory and the danger: they appeared erect and undaunted before the haughty Edward, who, at the intercession of his Queen Philippa, dismissed with presents these gallant citizens.

PHILIPPINES, the name of several islands in the Eastern Seas, discovered by Magellan in 1521. In 1576, a settlement was effected at

the mouth of the Manila river, and in 1574, the colony was attacked by a fleet of Chinese pirates, who were repulsed after a bloody engagement. In 1590, the Spaniards attacked the island of Sooloo, but were repulsed with great slaughter. By the year 1630, the number of Chinese on these islands amounted to 30,000; but in 1757 the viceroy of the Philippines despatched them to their own country, in consequence of the jealousy which prevailed between them and the Spaniards. In 1762, the profitable island Manila was taken by the English after a short siege. The town was given up to the Spaniards in 1764, and in 1800 the government of the Philippines declared their adherence to Ferdinand VII.

PHOCAS, Emperor, or rather tyrant of the East, in the seventh age. He advanced himself in the war from a mere captain, and was declared Augustus by the army in 602. He was crowned Nov. 23, by the patriarch Cyriacus, in the church of St. John, near Constantinople; after which he made his entry into the city, and put to death the emperor Maurice, whom he had dethroned, together with his sons. The empress and her daughters were saved by the people; but afterwards Phocas put them to death, with several persons of quality, upon a report that Maurice had left a son named Theodosius, who would very speedily appear in a condition to expel the tyrant. This happened in 607. After this, in 603, Chosroes, king of Persia, willing to revenge the death of Maurice, who was his friend, entered into the territories of the empire in 604; took Syria, Palestine, Phœnicia, Armenia, and Cappadocia; and his troops made inroads as far as Chalcedonia. At the same time, the Avars, Sclavonians, and several other nations, ravaged the empire, insomuch that all was in desolation. And Phocas, to increase it, suffering himself to be actuated by his evil inclinations, exercised unheard-of cruelties, and seemed to take singular pleasure in cutting off the heads of the most illustrious persons in the empire. He banished several who joined themselves with Heraclius, and defeated his troops. In this

juncture, one Phocius, 'whose wife he had taken away, surprised him in his palace, and having taken off his imperial robe, put on a filthy one, and sent him to Heraclius, who having reproached him with his crimes, put him to very severe tortures, and at last caused his head to be struck off, Oct. 5, 610, after he had reigned seven years, ten months, and 18 days.

PHOCION, an Athenian, celebrated for his virtues, private as well as public. He often checked the violent and inconsiderate measures of Demosthenes, and when the Athenians seemed eager to make war against Philip, king of Macedonia, Phocion observed that war should never be undertaken without the strongest and most certain expectations of success and victory. He was 45 times appointed governor of Athens, and no greater encomium can be passed upon his talents as a minister and statesman, than that he never solicited that high, though dangerous, office. It was through him that Greece was saved from an impending war, and he advised Alexander rather to turn his arms against Persia, than to shed the blood of the Greeks, who were either his allies or his subjects. But not totally to despise the favours of the monarch, he begged Alexander to restore to their liberty four slaves that were confined in the citadel of Sardis. When the Piræus was taken, Phocion was accused of treason, and therefore, to avoid the public indignation, he fled for safety to Polyperchon. Polyperchon sent him back to Athens, where he was immediately condemned to drink the fatal poison. He received the indignities of the people with uncommon composure; and when one of his friends lamented his fate, Phocion exclaimed, "This is no more than what I expected; this treatment the most illustrious citizens of Athens have received before me." He died about 318 years before the christian era. It has been observed of Phocion, that he never appeared elated in prosperity, or dejected in adversity; he never betrayed pusillanimity by a tear, nor joy by a smile. His countenance was stern and unpleasant, but he never behaved with severity, his expressions were mild, and his rebukes

gentle. At the age of 80 he appeared at the head of the Athenian armies like the most active officer, and to his prudence and cool valour in every period of life his citizens acknowledged themselves much indebted. His merits were not buried in oblivion; the Athenians repented of their ingratitude, and honoured his memory by raising him statues, and putting to a cruel death his guilty accusers.

PHOCIS, a country of Greece bounded on the east by Boeotia, and by Locris on the west. Phocis is rendered famous for a war which it maintained against some of the Grecian republics, and which has received the name of the Phocian war: This celebrated war originated in the following circumstances: When Philip, king of Macedonia, had fomented divisions in Greece, and disturbed the peace of every republic, the Greeks universally became discontented in their situation, and jealous of the prosperity of the neighbouring states. The Amphictyons, who were the supreme rulers of Greece, and who at that time were subservient to the views of the Thebans, the inveterate enemies of the Phocians, shewed the same spirit, and like the rest of their countrymen, were actuated by the same jealousy and ambition. As the supporters of religion, they accused the Phocians of impiety for ploughing a small portion of land which belonged to the god of Delphi. They immediately commanded, that the sacred field should be laid waste, and that the Phocians, to expiate their crime, should pay a heavy fine to the community. The inability of the Phocians to pay the fine, and that of the Amphictyons to enforce their commands by violence, gave rise to new events. The people of Phocis resolved to oppose the Amphictyonic council by force of arms. During two years hostilities were carried on between the Phocians and their enemies, the Thebans and the people of Locris, but no decisive battles were fought. Philip of Macedonia, who had assisted the Thebans, was obliged to retire from the field with dishonour, but a more successful battle was fought near Magnesia, and the monarch, by crowning the head of his soldiers with laurel, and telling them that they fought in the

HISTORY.

cause of Delphi and heaven, obtained a complete victory. This fatal defeat; however, did not ruin the Phocians: Phayllus, took the command of their armies, and doubling the pay of his soldiers, he increased his forces by the addition of 9000 men from Athens, Lacedæmon, and Achaia. But all this numerous force at last proved ineffectual, the treasures of the temple of Delphi, which had long defrayed the expenses of the war, began to fail, dissensions arose among the ringleaders of Phocis, and when Philip had crossed the Straits of Thermopylae, the Phocians relying on his generosity, claimed his protection, and implored him to plead their cause before the Amphictyonic council. His feeble intercession was not attended with success, and the Thebans, the Locrians, and the Thessalians, who then composed Amphictyonic council, unanimously decreed, that the Phocians should be deprived of the privilege of sending members among the Amphictyons. The Phocians ten years after they had undertaken the sacred war, saw their country laid desolate, their walls demolished, and their cities in ruins, by the wanton jealousy of their enemies, and the inflexible cruelty of the Macedonian soldiers, B.C. 346. They were not, however, long under this disgraceful sentence, their well known valour and courage recommended them to favour, and they gradually regained their influence and consequence by the protection of the Athenians, and the favours of Philip.

PHOENICE, or PHOENICIA, a country of Asia, at the east of the Mediterranean, whose boundaries have been different in different ages. Some suppose that the names of Phœnicia, Syria, and Palestine, are indiscriminately used for one and the same country. Phœnicia, according to Ptolemy, extended on the north as far as the Eleutherus, a small river which falls into the Mediterranean sea, a little below the island of Aradus, and it had Pelusium, or the territories of Egypt, as its more southern boundary, and Syria on the east. Sidon and Tyre were the most capital towns of the country. The inhabitants planted colonies on the shores of the Mediterranean, par-

ticularly Carthage, Hippo, Marseilles, and Utica; and their manufactures acquired such a superiority over those of other nations, that among the ancients, whatever was elegant, great, or pleasing, either in apparel, or domestic utensils, received the epithet of *Sidonian*. The Phœnicians were originally governed by kings. They were subdued by the Persians, and afterwards by Alexander, and remained tributary to his successors and to the Romans.

PHRAATES I., a King of Parthia, who succeeded Arsaces III., called also Phriapatius. He made war against Antiochus, king of Syria, and was defeated in three successive battles.—The 2d, succeeded his father Mithridates as king of Parthia; and made war against the Seythians, whom he called to his assistance against Antiochus, king of Syria, and whom he refused to pay, on the pretence that they came too late. He was murdered by some Greek mercenaries, B. C. 129.—The 3d succeeded his father Pacorus on the throne of Parthia, and gave one of his daughters in marriage to Tigranes, the son of Tigranes, king of Armenia. Soon after he invaded the kingdom of Armenia, to make his son-in-law sit on the throne of his father. His expedition was attended with ill success. He renewed a treaty of alliance which his father had made with the Romans. At his return into Parthia, he was assassinated by his sons Orodes and Mithridates.—The 4th, was nominated king of Parthia by his father Orodes, whom he soon after murdered, as also his own brothers. He made war against M. Antony with great success, and obliged him to retire with much loss. Some time after, he was dethroned by the Parthian nobility, but he soon regained his power, and drove away the usurper, called Tiridates. The usurper claimed the protection of Augustus, the Roman emperor, and Phraates sent ambassadors to Rome to plead his cause, and gain the favour of his powerful judge. He was successful in his embassy; he made a treaty of peace and alliance with the Roman emperor, restored the ensigns and standards which the Parthians had taken from Crassus and Antony, and gave up his four sons

with their wives as hostages, till his engagements were performed. He was murdered by one of his concubines, who placed her son, called Phraortes, on the throne.

PHRYGIA MINOR. The inhabitants of this country were chiefly famous for the reign of Priam and his ancestors at Troy, its capital, which was taken by the Greeks in 904 B.C. About 560, it became part of the empire of Croesus, King of Lydia, and afterwards underwent the revolutions of that country.

PICHEGRU (Charles), a French general, was born at Arbois, in 1761, in Franche-comte. His parentage was mean, but he received a good education under the monks in his native town; after which he entered into the army, and became a serjeant. In the revolution he was elevated to the rank of a general, and in 1793 gained a victory over the combined armies at Hagenu; in consequence of which he succeeded to the command of the army of the north. His most celebrated exploit was the subjugation of Holland, for which he was elected a member of the national assembly. At length he fell under the suspicion of being a royalist, and was banished to Cayenne, from whence he escaped to England. In the spring of 1804, he went to Paris, but was soon seized, and thrown into a dungeon of the temple, where he was secretly murdered, or assassinated himself on the 6th of April of the same year.

PICTS' WALL, a celebrated barrier, raised by the Romans against the incursions of the Picts and Scots, the remains of which are still to be seen in Northumberland and Cumberland.

PILNITZ, in Saxony, where the confederated sovereigns concluded the treaty of 1791, for the support of the Bourbons in France, which gave rise to the sanguinary wars of the revolution.

PISISTRATUS, an Athenian, son of Hippocrates, who early distinguished himself by his valour in the field and by his address and eloquence at home. After he had rendered himself the favourite of the populace by his liberality, and by the intrepidity with which he had fought their battles, particularly near Salamis, he resolved to make himself

master of his country. Pisistratus was not disheartened by the measures of his relation Solon, but he had recourse to artifice. The people too late perceived their credulity; yet, though the tyrant was popular, two of the citizens, Megacles and Lycargus, conspired together against him, and by their means he was forcibly ejected from the city. The private dissensions of the friends of liberty proved favourable to the expelled tyrant, and Megacles, who was jealous of Lycargus, secretly promised to restore Pisistratus to all his rights and privileges in Athens, if he would marry his daughter. Pisistratus consented, and by the assistance of his father-in-law, he was soon enabled to expel Lycargus, and to re-establish himself. In the midst of his triumph, however, Pisistratus felt himself unsupported, and some time after, when he repudiated the daughter of Megacles, he found that not only the citizens, but even his very troops were alienated from him by the influence, the intrigues, and the bribery of his father-in-law. He fled from Athens, where he could no longer maintain his power, and retired to Euboea. Eleven years after, he was drawn from his obscure retreat by means of his son Hippias, and he was a third time received by the people of Athens as their master and sovereign. He died about 527 years before the Christian era, after he had enjoyed the sovereign power at Athens for 33 years, including the years of his banishment.

PITT (William), the second son of Earl Chatham, was born May 28, 1759. In 1786, he obtained a seat in parliament, where he exerted the power of his eloquence against Lord North. On the removal of that minister, Mr. Pitt did not obtain a place; but when the Earl of Shelburne succeeded the Marquis of Rockingham, he became chancellor of the exchequer. This ministry, however, was soon displaced by the coalition of Lord North and Mr. Fox, in 1782; but the famous India bill of the latter producing another change, at the end of 1783, Mr. Pitt became first lord of the treasury, as well as chancellor of the exchequer. Though in this situation he had to encounter an extraordinary combi-

HISTORY.

nation of talents and influence, he overcame all obstacles, and carried many important measures, particularly his own India bill, a commercial treaty with France, the acts against smuggling, and the establishment of a sinking fund. The illness of the king, in 1788, opened a new field for the energies of this great man, who, by taking constitutional ground in regard to the right of parliament to settle a regency, ingratiated himself with the nation, though certain of being removed when that appointment should take place. The recovery of his majesty, however, fixed him more firmly in his seat. The next great event in his life was that of being called to oppose the power of revolutionary France, and to secure the nation from similar convulsions. At length he acceded to the wish that an experiment for peace should be tried, which took place in 1801, under Mr. Addington; but the event proved how fallacious were the hopes of the people; and, in 1804, Mr. Pitt was recalled to power. But his health was now in a very precarious state, and he died at Putney, Jan. 23, 1806. His remains were deposited in Westminster Abbey. Very honourable eulogiums were pronounced on his memory by all parties, and his debts were voted by parliament to be paid at the public expense.

PIUS VI. (Pope), or John Angelo Braschi, was born at Cesena in 1717. He succeeded Clement XIV. in 1775, and soon after made a reform in the public treasury. When the emperor Joseph II. decreed that all the religious orders in his dominions were free from papal jurisdiction, Pius, apprehensive of the consequences of such a measure, went in person to Vienna in 1782; but though he was honourably received, his remonstrances were ineffectual. The French Revolution, however, was of more serious consequence to the papal see. The pope, having favoured the allies, Bonaparte entered the ecclesiastical territory, and compelled him to purchase a peace. Basseville was then sent from the republic to Rome, where the people assassinated him in 1793. This furnished the pretext for another visitation, and accordingly Bonaparte again entered Italy,

made the pope prisoner in his capital, and hurried him over the Alps to Valence, where he died, August 29, 1799.

PIZARRO (Francis), the conqueror of Peru, was the son of a gentleman in Truxillo. He embarked for America as a soldier; and in 1524, associated at Panama with Diego de Almagro, and Hernandes Lacque, a priest, in an enterprise to make discoveries. In this voyage they fell in with the coast of Peru, but being too few to make any attempt at a settlement, Pizarro returned to Spain, where all that he gained was a power from the court to prosecute this object. However, having raised some money, he was enabled again, in 1531, to visit Peru, where a civil war was then raging between Huascar, the legitimate monarch, and his half-brother Atahualpa. Pizarro, by pretending to take the part of the latter, was permitted to march into the interior, where he made the unsuspecting chief his prisoner, and exacted an immense ransom. This drew fresh adventurers; and soon after Pizarro murdered the unfortunate Atahualpa, by burning him at a stake. In 1535, the conqueror laid the foundation of Lima; but, in 1537, a contest arose between him and Almagro, who was defeated and executed. The son and friends of Almagro, however, avenged his death, and on June 26, 1541, Pizarro was assassinated in his palace.

PLAGUE, Greece and Persia visited by one, 767 before Christ; in Rome, when 10,000 persons died in a day, 78; in England, 782; in Chichester, when 34,000 died, 1772; in Canterbury, 788; in Scotland, which swept away 40,000 inhabitants, 964; in England, 1025, 1247, and 1347, when 50,000 died in London, 1500 in Leicester, &c.; in Germany, which cut off 90,000 people, 1348; in Paris and London very dreadful, 1367; again, 1379; in London, which killed 30,000 persons, 1407; again, when more were destroyed than in 15 years' war before, 1477; again, when 20,000 died in London, 1499; again, 1548; again, 1594; which carried off in London a fourth part of its inhabitants, 1604; at Constantinople, when 200,000 persons

died, 1611; at London, when 35,417 died, 1625, and 1631; at Lyons, in France, died 60,000, 1632; again at London, which destroyed 68,000 persons, in 1665; at Measina, Feb. 1743; at Algiers, 1755; in Persia, when 80,000 persons perished at Bassorah, 1773; at Smyrna, that carried of about 20,000 inhabitants, 1784; and at Tunis, 32,000, 1784; at the Levant, 1786; at Alexandria, Smyrna, &c. 1791; in Egypt, in 1792, where near 800,000 died; the yellow fever destroyed 2000 at Philadelphia, in 1793; on the coast of Africa, particularly at Barbary, 3000 died daily; at Fez, 247,000 died, in June, 1799; 1800 died at Morocco, in 1800, in one day; in Spain and at Gibraltar, where great numbers died in 1804, and 1805; at Malta, where it committed great ravages, 1813; in lesser Asia, Syria, and the adjacent islands, and Smyrna lost 30,000 persons, 1814; in the kingdom of Naples, 1816.

PLASSEY, a town of Bengal, celebrated as the scene of the battle between the British troops under Lord Clive and the army, and the Nabob Suraje ad Dowlah.

PLATÆA, and **Æ**, a town of Boeotia, near mount Cithæron, on the confines of Megaris and Attica, celebrated for a battle fought there, between Mardonius the commander of Xerxes king of Persia, and Pausanias the Lacedæmonian, and the Athenians. The Persian army consisted of 300,000 men, 3000 of which scarce escaped with their lives by flight. The Grecian army, which was greatly inferior, lost but few men, and among these 91 Spartans, 52 Athenians, and 16 Tegeans, were the only soldiers found in the number of the slain. The plunder which the Greeks obtained in the Persian camp was immense. Pausanias received the tenth of all the spoils, on account of his uncommon valour during the engagement, and the rest were rewarded each according to their respective merit. This battle was fought on the 22d September, the same day as the battle of Mycale, 479 B. C., and by it Greece was totally delivered for ever from the continual alarms to which she was exposed on account of the Persian invasions, and from that time none

of the princes of Persia dared to appear with a hostile force beyond the Hellespont. Plataea was taken by the Thebans, after a famous siege; in the beginning of the Peloponnesian war, and destroyed by the Spartans, B. C. 427. Alexander rebuilt it, and paid great encomiums to the inhabitants, on account of their ancestors, who had so bravely fought against the Persians at the battle of Marathon, and under Pausanias.

POICTIERS (Battle of) fought on the 19th of Sept. 1356, between John II. king of France, and Edward the Black Prince. The van of the prince's army which consisted altogether of only 8000, was commanded by the Earl of Warwick; the rear by the Earls of Salisbury and Suffolk; the main-body by the prince himself. The first division of John's army, which consisted of 80,000 strong, was commanded by the Duke of Orleans, the king's brother; the second by the dauphin; the third by the king himself. A French detachment under Marshals Andreu and Clermont, which advanced first to the charge, was discomfited and overthrown, one of the marshals was slain, the other taken prisoner; and the remainder of the detachment fell back, and put every thing into disorder. In that critical moment, the Captal de Buche unexpectedly appeared and attacked the dauphin's line, which fell into confusion. Landas, Bodensai, and St. Venant, now set the example of flight, which was followed by that of the whole division. The Duke of Orleans, seized with a panic, thought no longer of fighting, but carried off his division by a retreat, which soon after turned into a flight. The division under King John was still, however, more numerous than the whole English army; and the only resistance made that day was by his line of battle. The Prince of Wales fell with impetuosity on some German cavalry placed in the front; a fierce battle ensued: but the German generals, together with the Duke of Athens, falling in the engagement, that body of cavalry gave way, and left the king himself exposed to the whole fury of the enemy. The king, spent with fatigue, and overwhelmed by numbers, might easily have been

HISTORY.

slain, but every English gentleman, ambitious of taking alive the royal prisoner, spared him in the action, exhorted him to surrender, and offered him quarter. Several who attempted to seize him suffered for their temerity. In this dilemma he cried out, "Where is my cousin, the Prince of Wales?" and seemed unwilling to become prisoner to any person of inferior rank; but being told that the prince was at a distance, he threw down his gauntlet, and yielded himself, together with his son, to Dennis de Morbec, a fugitive knight of Arras.—The moderation which Edward displayed on this occasion, has for ever stamped his character. At a repast which was prepared in his tent for his royal prisoner, he served behind his chair, as if he had been one of his retinue. He refused to seat himself at table with his majesty: and John received, when a captive, those honours which had been denied him when on a throne.

POLAND, the family of the Lechs kept possession of this country till the year 550, when it was vested in 12 Palatines or Waywodes, who divided Poland into the same number of provinces.—To them succeeded the family of Piastus, under whom it was raised from a dukedom to a kingdom, and after whose extinction the race of Jagello were invested with the regal dignity.—On the death of Sigismund, the last of the Jagello family, Henry, duke of Anjou, and brother to Charles IX. of France, ascended the polish throne; but, on the death of the king of France, he quitted Poland, and was succeeded by Stephen Battori; this prince subdued the barbarian Cossacks.—On the death of Uladislav VI., his brother, John Cassimer, a cardinal, was elected to fill the throne; but grieved at beholding his kingdom laid waste by domestic and foreign war, he abdicated the government.—Under Michael Coribut, Poland was obliged to become tributary to the Ottoman Porte; but John Sobieski, general of the Crown, defeated the Turks in an engagement, and delivered his country from tribute.—On the death of Michael, Sobieski ascended the throne; and having again defeated the Turks with great slaugh-

ter, he compelled them to raise the siege of Vienna, in 1638.—After a glorious reign, Sobieski died; when Frederic Augustus, elector of Saxony, was chosen king, in opposition to the Prince of Conti. Augustus was dethroned by Charles XII. of Sweden; who placed on the throne Stanislaus; but Augustus was afterwards re-established by the Czar of Russia.—On his death, Stanislaus was chosen king a second time; but through the influence of Germany and Russia, his election was annulled; and the son of the late king was invested with the sovereignty, by the name of Augustus III.—On his death, through the intervention of Russia, Count Poniatowski was elected king, and proclaimed by the title of Stanislaus Augustus; but his reign was one continued scene of confusion and distress.—In 1772, the courts of Russia, Prussia, and Vienna, in a most unprincipled manner, divided among themselves the greater part of this unfortunate country.—In 1795, they completed this great political crime, by seizing on the remaining part, and expunging Poland from among independent nations. At the congress held at Vienna in 1815, part of Poland was united to the Russian empire, with the preservation of its own constitution; and, on this event, Alexander, emperor of Russia, assumed the title of King of Poland.

POLIGNAC (Melchior de), a cardinal, was born in 1661, at Puy, in Velay, in Languedoc. He studied at Paris, after which he was employed in diplomatic concerns, in which he gave such satisfaction, as to be rewarded with the purple. During the regency he was banished to his abbey of Anchin; but afterwards he was recalled, and appointed agent for French affairs at Rome. In 1726, he was made archbishop of Anch. He died in 1741.

POLLIO, (C. Asinius), a Roman consul under the reign of Augustus, who distinguished himself as much by his eloquence and writings, as by his exploits in the field. He was with J. Cesar when he crossed the Rubicon. He defeated the Dalmatians, and favoured the cause of Antony against Augustus. He was greatly esteemed by Augustus, when he had become one of his adherents, after

the ruin of Antony. He died in the 80th year of his age, A. D. 4.

POMPADOUR (Jane Antoinette, Poisson, Marchioness of), the mistress of Louis XV., was the daughter of a financier, and the wife of M. d'Etioles, when she attracted the notice of the king, who made her a marchioness in 1745. She liberally encouraged the arts, and collected a valuable cabinet of curiosities. She died in 1764, aged 42.

POMPEY (C.), surnamed the *Great* from the greatness of his exploits, was son of Pompeius Strabo and Lucilla. He early distinguished himself in the field of battle, and fought with success and bravery under his father, whose courage and military prudence he imitated. In the disturbances which agitated Rome, by the ambition and avarice of Marius and Sylla, Pompey followed the interest of the latter, and by levying three legions for his service he gained his friendship and his protection. In the 26th year of his age, he conquered Sicily, which was in the power of Marius and his adherents, and in forty days he regained all the territories of Africa, which had forsaken the interest of Sylla. He now appeared, not as a dependant, but as a rival, of the dictator, Sylla; and his opposition to his measures totally excluded him from his will. After the death of Sylla, Pompey supported himself against the remains of the Marian faction, which were headed by Lepidus. He was soon made consul, and in that office he restored the tribunitial power to its original dignity: and in forty days removed the pirates from the Mediterranean, where they had reigned for many years, and by their continual plunder and audacity almost destroyed the whole naval power of Rome. While he extirpated these maritime robbers, Pompey was called to greater undertakings, and empowered to finish the war against Mithridates, king of Pontus, and Tigranes, king of Armenia. His operations against the King of Pontus were bold and vigorous; and in a general engagement the Romans so totally defeated the enemy, that the Asiatic monarch escaped with difficulty from the field of battle. Pompey did not lose sight of the advantages which

despatch would ensure: he entered Armenia, and received the submission of King Tigranes. Part of Arabia was subdued, Judea became a Roman province, and when he had now nothing to fear from Mithridates, who had voluntarily destroyed himself, Pompey returned to Italy with all the pomp and majesty of an eastern conqueror. The Romans dreaded his approach; they knew his power, and his influence among his troops, and they feared the return of another tyrannical Sylla. Pompey, however, banished their fears; he disbanded his army, and the conqueror of Asia entered Rome like a private citizen. To strengthen himself, and to triumph over his enemies, Pompey soon after united his interest with that of Cæsar and Crassus, and formed the first triumvirate, by solemnly swearing that their attachment should be mutual, their cause common, and their union permanent. But this powerful confederacy was soon after broken; the sudden death of Julia, the wife of Pompey, and daughter of Cæsar, and the total defeat of Crassus in Syria, shattered the political bands which held the jarring interest of Cæsar and Pompey united. Pompey dreaded his father-in-law, and yet he affected to despise him; and, by suffering anarchy to prevail in Rome, he convinced his fellow-citizens of the necessity of investing him with dictatorial power. But while the conqueror of Mithridates was as a sovereign at Rome, the adherents of Cæsar were not silent. They demanded that either the consulship should be given to him, or that he should be continued in the government of Gaul. This just demand would perhaps have been granted, but Cato opposed it; and when Pompey sent for the two legions which he had lent to Cæsar, the breach became more wide, and a civil war inevitable. Cæsar was privately preparing to meet his enemies, while Pompey remained indolent, and gratified his pride in seeing all Italy celebrate his recovery from an indisposition by universal rejoicings. But he was soon roused from his inactivity; and it was now time to find his friends, if any thing could be obtained from the captive

HISTORY.

and the fickleness of a people which he had once delighted and amused by the exhibition of games and spectacles in a theatre which could contain 20,000 spectators. Cæsar was now near Rome; he had crossed the Rubicon, which was a declaration of hostilities; and Pompey, who had once boasted that he could raise legions to his assistance by stamping with his foot, fled from the city with precipitation, and retired to Brundisium with the consuls and part of the senators. Cæsar was now master of Rome, and in sixty days all Italy acknowledged his power, and the conqueror hastened to Spain, there to defeat the interest of Pompey, and to alienate the hearts of his soldiers. He was too successful; and, when he had gained to his cause the western parts of the Roman empire, Cæsar crossed Italy, and arrived in Greece, where Pompey had retired, supported by all the power of the east, the wishes of the republican Romans, and a numerous and well-disciplined army. Pompey repelled him with great success, and he might have decided the war if he had continued to pursue the enemy while their confusion was great, and their escape almost impossible. Want of provisions obliged Cæsar to advance towards Thessaly; Pompey pursued him, and in the plains of Pharsalia the two armies engaged. The whole was conducted against the advice and approbation of Pompey; and by suffering his troops to wait for the approach of the enemy, he deprived his soldiers of that advantage which the army of Cæsar obtained by running to the charge with spirit, vigour, and animation. The cavalry of Pompey soon gave way, and the general retired to his camp overwhelmed with grief and shame. But here there was no safety; the conqueror pushed on every side, and Pompey disguised himself and fled to the sea-coast, whence he passed to Egypt, where he hoped to find a safe asylum till better and more favourable moments returned in the court of Ptolemy, a prince whom he had once protected and ensured on his throne. When Ptolemy was told that Pompey claimed his protection, he consulted his ministers, and had the baseness to

betray and to deceive him. A boat was sent to fetch him on shore; and the Roman general left his galley after an affectionate and tender parting with his wife Cornelia. The Egyptian sailors sat in sullen silence in the boat; and when Pompey disembarked Achilles and Septimius assassinated him. His wife, who had followed him with her eyes to the shore, was a spectator of the bloody scene; and she hastened away from the bay of Alexandria, not to share his miserable fate. He died B.C. 48, in the 58th or 59th year of his age, the day after his birth-day.

PONDICHERRY, a city on the sea-coast of the south of India, imperfectly besieged by the British, under Admiral Boscawen, in 1748. In 1761 it was taken, after a tedious siege and blockade, by the army under Colonel Coote, when 2000 Europeans were made prisoners, and 500 pieces of cannon and 100 mortars taken. In 1763 it was restored to the French; but in October, 1778, it surrendered to the British, under Sir H. Monro; but was again restored in 1783.

PONIATOWSKI (Stanislaus), a Polish ambassador, remarkable for his intrigues with the Empress Catherine of Russia, and for being raised by her to the throne of Poland on the decease of Augustus III. in 1764.

PONTEFRACT CASTLE, in Yorkshire, built by Ilbert de Lacy in 1080, besieged and taken by the parliamentary forces in the reign of Charles I., when it was unroofed and demolished. It has also been the scene of various tragical events in English history, especially of the atrocities of Richard III.

PONTUS. This country came into subjection to Cræsus, king of Lydia, about 560 B.C., and underwent the revolutions of the Lydian and Persian empires till about 300 B.C., when it became independent of the Macedonians under Mithridates II. It grew very considerable under Mithridates VII., who extended his empire over all Asia Minor; but could not retain his conquests, being defeated successively by Sylla, Lucullus, and Pompey; and, after many dreadful defeats, this country was disposed of by the Romans on

his death in 64 B.C. Upon the taking of Constantinople by the Latins in 1204, Alexius Comnenus established at Trebisonde, in this country, a new empire of the Greeks, which continued till Mohammed II. put an end to it in 1454.

POPE (the title of), formerly given to all bishops. The emperor, in 606, confined it to the bishops of Rome, and then their power began; Hyge-nus was the first bishop of Rome that took the title, 154; Leo I. elected May 10, 440, died 461; The pope's supremacy over the Christian church first established by Boniface III., 607; the custom of kissing the pope's toe introduced, 708; pope Stephen III. was the first who was carried to the Lateran on men's shoulders, 782.—The pope's temporal grandeur commenced, 755.—Sergius II. was the first pope that changed his name on his election, 844.—John XIX., a lay-man, made pope by dint of money, 1024.—The first pope that kept an army was Leo IX., 1054.—Their assumed authority carried to such ex-cesses as to excommunicate and de-pose sovereigns, and to claim the presentations of all church benefices, by Gregory VII. and his successors, from 1073 to 1500.—Pope Gregory obliged Henry IV. emperor of Ger-many, to stand three days, in the depth of winter, barefooted, at his castle-gate, to implore his pardon, 1077.—Many similar acts took place in after times.—Pope Celestine III. kicked the emperor Henry IV.'s crown off his head, while kneel-ing, to shew his prerogative of mak-ing and unmaking kings, 1191.—The pope's authority first introduced into England, 1079; abrogated by par-liament, 1534.—The pope demanded an annual sum for every cathedral and monastery in Christendom, but refused, 1226.—Collected the tenths of the whole kingdom of England, 1226.—Residence of the pope re-moved to Avignon, where it con-tinued 70 years, 1308.—Their de-mand on England refused by par-liament, 1363.—Three at one time all pretending to infallibility in 1414.—Leo X. made a cardinal at 14 years old; elected pope March 11, 1513, aged 36; died 1521.—Clement VII. began to reign, who brought pluri-ties to their consummation, making

his nephew, Hippolito, cardinal de Medicis, commendatory universal, granting to him all the vacant bene-fices in the world, for six months, and appointing him usufructuary from the first day of his possession, 1523.—Rome sacked, and Clement imprisoned, 1527. Moved their re-sidence to Avignon, 1531.—The Lord Pope struck out of all English books, 1541.—Kissing the pope's toe, and some other ridiculous ceremonies, abolished, and the order of Jesuits sup-pressed by the late pope Clement XIV. 1773.—Visited Vienna to solicit the emperor in favour of the church, March, 1782.—Suppressed monas-teries, 1782.—Destitute of all political influence in Europe, 1787.—Burnt in effigy in Paris, May 4, 1791.—Made submission to the French republic, 1795.—Expelled Rome, Feb. 15, 1798.—Crowned Napoleon, 1804.

PORSENNA, or **PORSENA**, a king of Etruria, who declared war against the Romans because they re-fused to restore Tarquin to his throne, and to his royal privileges. He was at first successful, the Romans were defeated, and Porsenna would have entered the gates of Rome, had not Cocles stood at the head of a bridge, and supported the fury of the whole Etrurian army, while his companions behind were cutting off the com-munication with the opposite shore. This act of bravery astonished Por-senna; but when he had seen Mutus Scaevola enter his camp with an intention to murder him, and when he had seen him burn his hand with-out emotion, to convince him of his fortitude and intrepidity, he no longer dared to make head against a people so brave and so generous. He made a peace with the Romans, and never after supported the claims of Tarquin. The generosity of Por-senna's behaviour to the captives was admired by the Romans, and to reward his humanity they raised a brazen statue to his honour.

PORTO BELLO, discovered by Columbus in 1502, and taken by Sir Francis Drake in 1596, who, in a subsequent voyage, died in its har-bour. In 1739, Admiral Vernon entered the harbour with six ships, and captured the town after demo-lishing the forts.

PORTUGAL, the ancient *Land*.

HISTORY.

tania, was successively subject to the Suevi, the Goths and the Moors. About the middle of the twelfth century, it regained its liberty by the valour of Henry of Lorraine, grandson of the French monarch, who possessed it with the title of earl. His son, Alphonso Henriquez, having obtained a decisive victory over five Moorish kings, was proclaimed king by the soldiers. On the death of Ferdinand, in 1338, the states gave the crown to his natural brother John, surnamed the Bastard, who was equally politic and enterprising, and in whose reign the Portuguese first projected discoveries in the western ocean. In the reign of his great grandson, John II., who was a prince of profound sagacity and extensive views, the Portuguese made conquests in the interior of Africa, and discovered the Cape of Good Hope. Emanuel adopted the plan of his predecessors, and sent out a fleet; which, ranging through unknown seas, arrived at the city of Calicut, on the coast of Malabar; while others of his vessels discovered Brazil, in 1501. These princes had the merit of exciting that spirit of discovery, which led to many subsequent improvements of navigation and commerce. Their discoveries on the coast of Africa, led to the voyage of Columbus, and the discovery of America. They also established valuable colonies in Africa and America, and an extensive empire in India. John III., the son of Emanuel, admitted the new-founded order of the Jesuits, which has since been a powerful engine of despotism and superstition. Sebastian his grandson, heroically led an army against the Moors in Africa, where he perished in battle. Sebastian, leaving no issue, was succeeded by his uncle, cardinal Henry, who also dying without children, Philip, king of Spain, obtained the crown, A. D. 1580. In 1664, Portugal rendered itself independent of Spain; and John, duke of Braganza, ascended the throne, by the title of John IV. His son, Alphonso VI., was deposed on account of his cruelties; and the sceptre was transferred to his brother. Peter II. reigned peaceably thirty years; and, under the mild government of his son, John V., the arts began to flourish. In the reign of

Joseph II.; in 1755, the city of Lisbon was laid in ruins by an earthquake, in which 10,000 persons lost their lives. He was succeeded by his daughter, Mary Francisca Isabella; who for many years was so infirm in body and mind, that the affairs of the kingdom were managed by a regency. In 1807, the Prince Regent retired with the queen, his mother, and the rest of the royal family, to the Brazils, in South America. Rio de Janeiro then became the seat of the Portuguese government. Portugal was, however, wrested by the English out of the hands of the French in 1808. The king has since returned from the Brazils, and a representative constitution has been established.

PRAGA, a town of Poland, taken by storm by General Suwarrow, in 1794, when it was plundered, set on fire, and the inhabitants and the troops of the Polish insurgents who had taken refuge there, together amounting to 20,000, were barbarously massacred.

PRAGMATIC SANCTION, the ordinances that relate to the affairs of church or state, and more particularly those made or authorized by the kings of France. The king St. Louis made a Pragmatic Sanction in 1268, which ordained, 1. That the ecclesiastical prelates, collators of benefices and patrons, should peaceably enjoy all their rights. 2. That the cathedral churches and others should be maintained in the liberty of choosing their prelates. 3. That simony, and selling of benefices should be abolished entirely. 4. That all promotions and conferring of dignities and other benefices or ecclesiastical offices should be done according to the common law, councils and customs established by the ancient fathers of the church. 5. That there should be no exaction or levying of money by the court of Rome in any parts of the kingdom, but upon some urgent occasion; and then, too, with the king's consent, and approbation of the Gallican church. 6. That all the churches and ecclesiastics of the kingdom should be maintained in their liberties, franchises, and privileges, granted them by the kings of France. But the most famous pragmatic sanction was that of Charles VII. king of France, in 1438. The better to understand

this, it is to be observed, that prelates were formerly chosen by the suffrages of the under clergy and people. In process of time the people were excluded from the election in the eastern church, but the ancient custom continued in the western, even in the choice of popes. Whilst the Gauls were subject to the Roman emperors, the clergy and people chose bishops, but some time after the kings of France would have a hand in the promotion, which custom continued not only during the first race of the kings of France, but also under the first monarchs of the second race, as Pepin and Charlemagne, as Sirmund observes, who adds, that it was Louis the Meek that restored the power of choosing prelates to the clergy, in the third year of his reign. But, still that power was limited by some restriction; for, no bishop was to be consecrated until the king had approved the election: This continued until 1431, when there being a difference between Eugenius IV. and the council of Bale, King Charles VII. of France assembled his council and the clergy of his kingdom at Bourges, and the schism continuing till 1438, they made a Pragmatic Sanction, which was verified by the parliament of Paris in 1460, the sum of what was transacted at Bourges, was this, that the ordinaries of the kingdom should be looked upon as such before they went to Rome. That elections should be established according to ancient custom. That the authority of general councils should be preferred before the Pope's in particular. And, that expectative graces should be abolished. Aeneas Sylvius, who had been secretary to the council of Bale, having been chosen pope in 1458, under the name of Pius II., intrigued so well, that he persuaded King Lewis XI. to let things stand as before the Pragmatic Sanction; and, thereupon ordered that ordinance to be dragged through the streets of Rome, as a sign of its being abolished; and sent the king a sword enriched with pearls, with some eulogistic verses. In the mean time this condescension was not approved by the parliament, and complaint was made of it in the states at Tours, in the beginning of King Charles

VIII.th's reign, and John de St. Romain, procurer-general, hindered the registering of the letters, saying, that in abolishing the Pragmatic Sanction, chapters were deprived of their elections, ordinaries of their collations, &c. That the king's subjects would go to Rome to wait and sue for benefices; and observed, that during the three years that this sanction was not observed, 340,000 crowns were sent from France to Rome, for bishoprics, &c., and two millions of crowns for other benefices. The university of Paris bestirred itself also, and the rector declared to the pope's legate, that he appealed to the next general council. Thus, during the reigns of Charles VIII. and Lewis XII., it was neither abolished, nor yet strictly observed; but, pope Leo X. and Francis I. came to an agreement, by which it was revoked in 1516.

PRAGUE, the capital of Bohemia, where in 1757 the Austrians were defeated, and the town underwent a heavy siege and bombardment, until relieved by the defeat of the Prussians at Kollin. In 1771 a riot happened at Prague, in consequence of a famine, when the governor threatening to fire on the people, they replied they should receive such a death as a signal favour. They subsisted some time on the bark of trees, but they were at length relieved by the discovery of 100 barrels of flour in a store-house in the city.

PREMISLAUS, from being a private soldier, gained the throne of Poland in 750, in consequence of the victories he obtained over the Hungarians and Moravians.

PRESTONPANS (Battle of), happened on the 21st of September 1745, in which the king's forces amounting to 3,000 men under Sir John Cope were wholly put to rout by the Pretender, at the head of an equal number of Highlanders.

PRETENDER (the), was proclaimed in Scotland by the Earl of Mar, in September 1715, by the title of James VIII., and landed in Scotland on the 22d of December. But, this dream of royalty was of short duration: being hotly pursued by the Duke of Argyle, the Pretender again retired to France, after a few weeks' stay.

HISTORY.

PRETENDER (Charles, son of the), landed at Borodale in July 1745, and was immediately joined by 1,500 adherents. Having dispersed manifestoes throughout Scotland, in order to induce others to join him, his army gained new accessions as he advanced. He was victorious at Prestonpans; and then resolved immediately to advance into England. Soon after Carlisle surrendered to him; and, holding on his career, he marched through Macclesfield and Congleton to Derby; at which last place, finding that the king was ready to oppose him, he adopted the resolution of retreating into Scotland. On the 17th of January 1746, Charles gained the battle of Falkirk, which was the last advantage of any consequence. On the 16th of April, the Duke of Cumberland engaged the rebels on the plains of Culloden, and routed them with great slaughter. Charles, after many escapes and disasters, contrived to land at Morlaix, in Bretagne.

PROBUS (M. Aurelius Severus), a native of Birmium, in Pannonia. He obtained the office of military tribune in the 22d year of his age, and he distinguished himself so much that, at the death of the Emperor Tacitus, he was invested with the imperial purple. His election was universally approved by the Roman senate and people; and Probus, strengthened on his throne by the affection and attachment of his subjects, marched against the enemies of Rome, in Gaul and Germany. Several battles were fought; and, after he had left 400,000 barbarians dead in the field, Probus turned his arms against the Sarmatians. The same success attended him; and, after he had quelled and terrified the numerous barbarians of the north, he marched through Syria against the Blemmyes in the neighbourhood of Egypt. The Blemmyes were defeated with great slaughter; and the military character of the emperor was so well established, that the King of Persia sued for peace by his ambassadors, and attempted to buy the conqueror's favour with the most splendid presents. Probus was then feasting upon the most common food when the ambassadors were introduced; but, without even casting his eyes

upon them, he said; that if their master did not give proper satisfaction to the Romans, he would lay his territories desolate, and as naked as the crown of his head. As he spoke the emperor took off his cap, and shewed the baldness of his head to the ambassadors. The conditions were gladly accepted by the Persian monarch; and Probus retired to Rome to convince his subjects of the greatness of his conquests, and to claim from them the applause which their ancestors had given to the conqueror of Macedonia or the destroyer of Carthage, as he passed along the streets of Rome. His triumph lasted several days; and the Roman populace were long entertained with shows and combats. But the Roman empire, delivered from its foreign enemies, was torn by civil discord; and peace was not re-established till three usurpers had been severally defeated. While his subjects enjoyed tranquillity, Probus encouraged the liberal arts. He persuaded the inhabitants of Gaul and Illyricum to plant vines in their territories; and he himself repaired seventy cities in different parts of the empire, which had been reduced to ruins. He also attempted to drain the waters which were stagnated in the neighbourhood of Birmium, by conveying them to the sea by artificial canals. His armies were employed in this laborious undertaking; but, as they were unaccustomed to such toils, they soon mutinied, and fell upon the emperor as he was passing into one of the towns of Illyricum. He fled into an iron tower, which he himself had built to observe the marshes; but, as he was alone and without arms, he was soon overpowered and murdered, in the 56th year of his age, after a reign of six years and four months, on the second of November, after Christ 282.

PROTECTORATE OF CROMWELL was proclaimed on the 16th of December, 1653. Its dissolution took place in the person of his son, Richard; who, being unable or unwilling to make a stand for power, signed his own resignation, in form, in the year 1659.

PRUSSIA, this country was inhabited by the Berens, who de-

nominated it Borussia; which has been corrupted to Prussia.—They were conquered by the knights of the Teutonic order; whom Cassimer IV., king of Poland, compelled to acknowledge themselves his vassals; and to allow Polish Prussia to continue under the protection of Poland.—Albert, Margrave of Brandenburg, and grand master of the order, had the dukedom of Prussia conferred on him, by Sigismund I., king of Poland, A. D. 1525.—Frederic William, elector of Brandenburg, surnamed the Great, was freed from paying any homage to the crown of Poland.—His son Frederic, raised the duchy of Prussia to a kingdom, A. D. 1701.—He was succeeded by his son Frederic William; who was a wise and politic prince, and who amassed a prodigious treasure, though he maintained an army of 60,000 men.—He was succeeded by his son Frederic II., who was one of the first military, political, and literary characters, that ever filled a throne; but very despotic in the administration of his government.—His reign was pregnant with striking historical events. In 1744, he added Silesia to his dominions; but in 1756, Russia, Austria, and France, league against him; and he maintained against them the famous seven years' war.—He was succeeded by his nephew, Frederic William III., a weak and an impolitic prince; he joined in the league against the French republic, and then deserted his allies.—Dying in 1797, he was succeeded by Frederic William IV., who unhappily revived some obsolete pretensions to Hanover, in 1805; and, on Napoleon proposing to restore that electorate to the king of England, in 1806, Frederic took the field; but being totally defeated at Jena, his kingdom was conquered by Napoleon.—His ally, the Emperor of Russia, came too late to his assistance; and being himself overthrown at Friedland, was forced to conclude a treaty at Tilsit, in 1807; by which, the fortresses of Prussia were left in the hands of the French, till a peace with England. The French have since been expelled, and Prussia, in conjunction with other powers of Europe, has twice

assisted in deposing Napoleon, and has recovered the conquered provinces.

PTOLEMY I., surnamed Lagus, a king of Egypt, son of Arsinoe. When Alexander invaded Asia, the son of Arsinoe attended him as one of his generals. During the expedition, he behaved with uncommon valour; he killed one of the Indian monarchs in single combat. After the conqueror's death, in the general division of the Macedonian empire, Ptolemy obtained, as his share, the government of Egypt, with Libya, and part of the neighbouring territories of Arabia. He made himself master of Coelosyria, Phenicia, and the neighbouring coast of Syria; and when he had reduced Jerusalem, he carried about 100,000 prisoners to Egypt, to people the extensive city of Alexandria, which became the capital of his dominions. He made war with success against Demetrius and Antigonus, who disputed his right to the provinces of Syria. The bay of Alexandria being dangerous of access, he built a tower to conduct the sailors in the obscurity of the night; and that his subjects might be acquainted with literature, he laid the foundation of a library, which, under the succeeding reigns, became the most celebrated in the world. He also established in the capital of his dominions, a society, called *Museum*, of which the members, maintained at the public expense, were employed in philosophical researches, and in the advancement of science and the liberal arts. Ptolemy died in the 84th year of his age, after a reign of 39 years, about 284 years before Christ. The second son of Ptolemy I. succeeded his father on the Egyptian throne, and was called Philadelphus by Antiphrasis, because he killed two of his brothers. While Ptolemy strengthened himself by alliances with foreign powers, the internal peace of his kingdom was disturbed by the revolt of Magas, his brother, king of Cyrene. The sedition, however, was stopped, though kindled by Antiochus, king of Syria; and the death of the rebellious prince re-established peace for some time in the family of Philadelphus. Philadelphus died in the 64th year of his age, 246 years before the Christian era. During the whole of his reign,

HISTORY.

Philadelphus was employed in exciting industry, and in encouraging the liberal arts and useful knowledge among his subjects. The inhabitants of the adjacent countries were allured by promises and presents, to increase the number of the Egyptian subjects; and Ptolemy could boast of reigning over 33,339 well-peopled cities. He gave every possible encouragement to commerce; and by keeping two powerful fleets, one in the Mediterranean, and the other in the Red Sea, he made Egypt the mart of the world. His army consisted of 200,000 foot, and 40,000 horse, besides 300 elephants, and 2000 armed chariots. His palace was the asylum of learned men, whom he admired and patronised. He increased the library which his father had founded, and shewed his taste for learning, and his wish to encourage genius. This celebrated library, at his death, contained 200,000 volumes of the best and choicest books; and it was afterwards increased to 700,000. Part of it was burnt by the flames of Caesar's fleet; when he set it on fire to save himself; a circumstance, however, not mentioned by the general: and the whole was again magnificently repaired by Cleopatra, who added to the Egyptian library that of the kings of Pergamus. It is said that the Old Testament was translated into Greek during his reign; a translation which has been called Septuagint, because translated by the labours of 70 different persons. The third, succeeded his father Philadelphus on the Egyptian throne. He early engaged in a war against Antiochus Theus, for his unkindness to Berenice, the Egyptian king's sister, whom he had married with the consent of Philadelphus. With the most rapid success he conquered Syria and Cilicia, and advanced as far as the Tigris; but a sedition at home stopped his progress, and he returned to Egypt loaded with the spoils of conquered nations. The last years of Ptolemy's reign were passed in peace, if we except the refusal of the Jews to pay the tribute of 20 silver talents, which their ancestors had always paid to the Egyptian monarchs. Evergetes (as he was called by the Egyptians) died 221 years before Christ, after a reign of 25 years; and like his two

illustrious predecessors, he was the patron of learning, and, indeed, he is the last of the Lagides who gained popularity among his subjects by clemency, moderation, and humanity, and who commanded respect even from his enemies, by valour, prudence, and reputation. The fourth succeeded his father Evergetes on the throne of Egypt, and received the surname of Philopater by antiphrasis; because, according to some historians, he destroyed his father by poison. He began his reign with acts of the greatest cruelty and debauchery. In the midst of his pleasures, Philopater was called to war against Antiochus, king of Syria; and at the head of a powerful army, he soon invaded his enemies' territories, and might have added the kingdom of Syria to Egypt, if he had made a prudent use of the victories which attended his arms. In the latter part of his reign, the Romans, whom a dangerous war with Carthage had weakened, but at the same time roused to superior activity, renewed, for political reasons, the treaty of alliance which had been made with the Egyptian monarchs. Philopater at last, weakened and enervated by intemperance and continual debauchery, died in the 37th year of his age, after a reign of 17 years, 204 years before the Christian era. The fifth succeeded his father Philopater, as king of Egypt, though only in the fourth year of his age. The Romans renewed their alliance with him after their victories over Annibal, and the conclusion of the second Punic war. When Ptolemy had reached his 14th year, according to the laws and customs of Egypt, the years of his minority had expired. He received the surname of Epiphanes, or illustrious, and was crowned at Alexandria, with the greatest solemnity. Young Ptolemy was no sooner delivered from the shackles of his guardian, than he betrayed the same vices which had characterized his father. His cruelties raised seditions among his subjects; but these were twice quelled by the prudence and the moderation of one Polycrates, the most faithful of his corrupt ministers. In the midst of his extravagance, Epiphanes did not forget his alliance with the Romans; above all others, he shewed

himself eager to cultivate friendship with a nation, from whom he could derive so many advantages; and during their war against Antiochus, he offered to assist them with money against a monarch, whose daughter, Cleopatra, he had married, but whom he hated on account of the seditions he raised in the very heart of Egypt. After a reign of 24 years, 180 years before Christ, Ptolemy was poisoned by his ministers, whom he had threatened to rob of their possessions, to carry on a war against Seleucus, king of Syria. The sixth succeeded his father Epiphanes on the Egyptian throne, and received the surname of *Philometer*, on account of his hatred against his mother Cleopatra. He made war against Antiochus Epiphanes, king of Syria, to recover the provinces of Palestine and Cœlosyria, which were part of the Egyptian dominions; and after several successes, he fell into the hands of his enemy, who detained him in confinement. During the captivity of Philometer, the Egyptians raised to the throne his younger brother, Ptolemy Evergetes, or Physcon, also son of Epiphanes; but he was no sooner established in his power, than Antiochus turned his arms against Egypt, drove the usurper, and restored Philometer to all his rights and privileges as king of Egypt. This artful behaviour of Antiochus was soon comprehended by Philometer; and when he saw that Pelosion, the key of Egypt, had remained in the hands of his Syrian ally, he recalled his brother Physcon, and made him partner on the throne, and concerted with him how to repel their common enemy. This union of interest in the two royal brothers, incensed Antiochus; he entered Egypt with a large army, but the Romans checked his progress, and obliged him to retire. No sooner were they delivered from the impending war, than Philometer and Physcon, whom the fear of danger had united, began with mutual jealousy to oppose each other's views. Physcon was, at last, banished by the superior power of his brother; and as he could find no support in Egypt, he immediately repaired to Rome. To excite more effectually the compassion of the Romans, and to gain their assistance, he appeared in the meanest dress,

and took his residence in the most obscure corner of the city. He received an audience from the senate; and the Romans settled the dispute between the two royal brothers, by making them independent of one another, and giving the government of Libya and Cyrene to Physcon, and confirming Philometer in the possession of Egypt, and the island of Cyprus. The death of Philometer, 145 years before the Christian era, left Physcon master of Egypt, and all the dependent provinces. The seventh Ptolemy, surnamed Physcon, ascended the throne of Egypt after the death of his brother Philometer; and as he had reigned for some time conjointly with him, his succession was approved, though the wife and the son of the deceased monarch laid claim to the crown. He ordered himself to be called *Evergetes*, but the Alexandrians refused to do so, and stigmatized him with the appellation of *Kakergetes*, or evil-doer, a surname which he deserved by his tyranny and oppression. A series of barbarity rendered him odious; but as no one attempted to rid Egypt of her tyranny, the Alexandrians abandoned their habitations, and fled from a place which continually streamed with the blood of their massacred fellow-citizens. Physcon endeavoured to re-people the city which his cruelty had laid desolate; but the fear of sharing the fate of the former inhabitants, prevailed more than the promise of riches, rights, and immunities. He died at Alexandria in the 67th year of his age, after a reign of 29 years, about 116 years before Christ. The eighth, surnamed *Lathyrus*, from an excrescence, like a pea, on the nose, succeeded his father Physcon as king of Egypt. He had no sooner ascended the throne, than his mother Cleopatra, who reigned conjointly with him, expelled him to Cyprus; and placed the crown on the head of his brother, Ptolemy Alexander, her favourite son. Lathyrus, after he had exercised the greatest cruelty upon the Jews, by his conquest of Judæa, and made vain attempts to recover the kingdom of Egypt, retired to Cyprus till the death of his brother Alexander restored him to his native dominions. In the latter part of his reign, Lathyrus

HISTORY.

rus was called upon to assist the Romans with a navy for the conquest of Athens; but Lucullus, who had been sent to obtain the wanted supply, though received with kingly honours, was dismissed with evasive and unsatisfactory answers, and the monarch refused to part with troops which he deemed necessary to preserve the peace of his kingdom. Lathyrus died 81 years before the Christian era, after a reign of 36 years, since the death of his father Physcon; 11 of which he had passed with his mother Cleopatra on the Egyptian throne, 18 in Cyprus, and seven after his mother's death. The 12th, the illegitimate son of Lathyrus, ascended the throne of Egypt at the death of Alexander III. He received the surname of *Auletes*, because he played skilfully on the flute. His rise shewed great marks of prudence and circumspection; and as his predecessor, by his will, had left the kingdom of Egypt to the Romans, Auletes knew that he could not be firmly established on his throne, without the approbation of the Roman senate; and when he had suffered the Romans quietly to take possession of Cyprus, the Egyptians revolted, and Auletes was obliged to fly from his kingdom, and seek protection among the most powerful of his allies. The senators of Rome decreed to re-establish Auletes on his throne; and he was no sooner restored to power, than he sacrificed to his ambition his daughter Berenice, and behaved with the greatest ingratitude and perfidy to Rabirius, a Roman who had supplied him with money when expelled from his kingdom. Auletes died four years after his restoration, about 51 years before the Christian era. The 13th, surnamed *Dionysius*, or *Bacchus*, ascended the throne of Egypt conjointly with his sister Cleopatra, whom he had married, according to the directions of his father Auletes. He was in the 18th year of his age, when his guardian, Pompey, after the fatal battle of Pharsalia, came to the shores of Egypt, and claimed his protection. He refused to grant the required assistance; and by the advice of his ministers, he basely murdered Pompey, after he had brought him to shore under the mask of

friendship and cordiality. To carry the favour of the conqueror of Pharsalia, Ptolemy cut off the head of Pompey; but Cæsar turned with indignation from such perfidy, and when he arrived at Alexandria, he found the King of Egypt as faithless to his cause as to that of his fallen enemy. Cæsar sat as judge to hear the various claims of the brother and sister, to the throne; and to satisfy the people, he ordered the will of Auletes to be read, and confirmed Ptolemy and Cleopatra in the possession of Egypt, and appointed the two younger children masters of the island of Cyprus. This fair and candid decision might have left no room for dissatisfaction; but Ptolemy refused to acknowledge Cæsar as a judge or a mediator. The Roman enforced his authority by arms, and three victories were obtained over the Egyptian forces. Ptolemy, who had been for some time a prisoner in the hands of Cæsar, now headed his armies; but a defeat was fatal, and as he attempted to save his life by flight, he was drowned in the Nile, about 46 years before Christ, and three years and eight months after the death of Auletes.

PULTENEY (William, earl of Bath), was born of an ancient family, in 1692. After travelling through Europe, he was elected into parliament, and became distinguished as a zealous whig. On the accession of George I. he was appointed a privy-councillor, and secretary at war, being then the friend of Sir Robert Walpole; but afterwards a difference arose between them, and Pulteney became the leader of opposition. He also joined Bolingbroke in conducting a paper called "The Craftsman," the object of which was to annoy the minister. This produced a duel between Pulteney and Lord Hervey; and the king was so much displeased with the conduct of the former, that he struck his name out of the list of privy-councillors, and also from the commission of the peace. On the resignation of Walpole, in 1741, Pulteney was created Earl of Bath; but from that time his popularity ceased. He died June 8, 1674.

PULTOWA (Battle of), took place in the Ukraine, on the 30th of June, 1709, between the army of Charles

§ II. of Sweden, and that of the czar Peter. Charles, who had been wounded in a former engagement, was much indisposed. The litter in which he caused himself to be carried was twice overturned, and the second time broken by the enemy's cannon. After an obstinate and bloody engagement, the Swedish army was entirely routed and dispersed; 9,000 of the vanquished were left dead on the field of battle, and a great number surrendered themselves prisoners of war. Charles, with 300 of his guards, escaped with difficulty to Bender, a Turkish town in Moldavia.

PUNIC WAR. The first Punic war was undertaken by the Romans against Carthage, B. C. 264. Sicily, an island of the highest consequence to the Carthaginians as a commercial nation, was the seat of the first dissensions. The Mamertini, a body of Italian mercenaries, were appointed by the king of Syracuse to guard the town of Messana; but this tumultuous tribe, instead of protecting the citizens, basely massacred them, and seized their possessions. This act of cruelty raised the indignation of all the Sicilians, and Hiero, king of Syracuse, who had employed them, prepared to punish their perfidy; and the Mamertini, besieged in Messana, and without friends or resources, resolved to throw themselves for protection into the hands of the first power that could relieve them. They were, however, divided in their sentiments, and while some implored the assistance of Carthage, others called upon the Romans for protection. Without hesitation or delay, the Carthaginians entered Messana, and the Romans also hastened to give to the Mamertini that aid which had been claimed from them with as much eagerness as from the Carthaginians. At the approach of the Roman troops, the Mamertini, who had implored their assistance, took up arms, and forced the Carthaginians to evacuate Messana. From a private quarrel the war became general. The Romans obtained a victory in Sicily, but as their enemies were masters at sea, the advantages which they gained were small and inconsiderable. Duius at last obtained a victory, and he was the first Roman who ever received a triumph after a naval battle.

The losses which they had already sustained induced the Carthaginians to sue for peace, and the Romans, whom an unsuccessful descent upon Africa, under Regulus, had rendered diffident, listened to the proposal, and the first Punic war was concluded B. C. 241, on the following terms:—The Carthaginians pledged themselves to pay to the Romans, within 20 years, the sum of 3,000 Euboic talents; they promised to release all the Roman captives without ransom, to evacuate Sicily, and the other islands of the Mediterranean, and not to molest Hiero, king of Syracuse, or his allies. The Romans, to stop the progress of the Carthaginians towards Italy, made stipulations with them, by which they were not permitted to cross the Ibero, or to molest the cities of their allies the Saguntines. When Annibal succeeded to the command of the Carthaginian armies in Spain, he spurned the boundaries which the jealousy of Rome had set to his arms, and he immediately formed the siege of Saguntum. The Romans were apprized of the hostilities which had been begun against their allies, but Saguntum was in the hands of the active enemy before they had taken any steps to oppose him. Without delay or diffidence, B. C. 218, Annibal marched a numerous army of 90,000 foot and 12,000 horse, towards Italy, resolved to carry on the war to the gates of Rome. The battles of Trebia, of Ticinus, and of the lake of Thrasymenus, threw Rome into the greatest apprehensions, but the prudence and dilatory measures of the dictator Fabius, soon taught them to hope for better times. Yet the conduct of Fabius was universally censured as cowardice, and the two consuls who succeeded him in the command, pursuing a different plan of operations, brought on a decisive action at Cannæ, in which 45,000 Romans were left on the field of battle. This bloody victory caused so much consternation at Rome, that some authors have declared that if Hannibal had immediately marched from the plains of Cannæ to the city, he would have met with no resistance, but could have terminated a long and dangerous war with glory to himself, and the most inestimable advantages to his country. The news of this victory was carried

to Carthage by Mago, and the Carthaginians refused to believe it till three bushels of golden rings were spread before them, which had been taken from the Roman knights in the field of battle. Affairs now took a different turn, and Marcellus, who had the command of the Roman legions in Italy, soon taught his countrymen that Annibal was not invincible in the field. In different parts of the world the Romans were making very rapid conquests. Annibal no longer appeared formidable in Italy; if he conquered towns in Campania or Magna Græcia, he remained master of them only while his army hovered in the neighbourhood, and if he marched towards Rome the alarm he occasioned was but momentary, the Romans were prepared to oppose him, and his retreat was therefore the more dishonourable. The conquests of young Scipio in Spain had now raised the expectations of the Romans, and he had no sooner returned to Rome than he proposed to remove Annibal from the capital of Italy by carrying the war to the gates of Carthage. This was a bold and hazardous enterprise, but though Fabius opposed it, it was universally approved by the Roman senate, and young Scipio was empowered to sail to Africa. The conquests of the young Roman were as rapid in Africa as in Spain, and the Carthaginians, apprehensive for the fate of their capital, recalled Annibal from Italy. Annibal received their orders with indignation, and with tears in his eyes he left Italy, where for 16 years he had known no superior in the field of battle. At his arrival in Africa, the Carthaginian general soon collected a large army, and met his exulting adversary in the plains of Zama. The battle was long and bloody, and though one nation fought for glory, and the other for the dearer sake of liberty, the Romans obtained the victory, and Annibal, who had sworn eternal enmity to the gods of Rome, fled from Carthage after he had advised his countrymen to accept the terms of the conqueror. This battle of Zama was decisive, the Carthaginians sued for peace, which the haughty conquerors granted with difficulty. During the 50 years which followed the conclusion of the second

Punic war, the Carthaginians were employed in repairing their losses by unwearied application and industry; but they found still in the Romans a jealous rival and a haughty conqueror, and in Masinissa, the ally of Rome, an intriguing and ambitious monarch. The king of Numidia made himself master of one of their provinces; but as they were unable to make war without the consent of Rome, the Carthaginians sought relief by embassies, and made continual complaints in the Roman senate of the tyranny and oppression of Masinissa. Commissioners were appointed to examine the cause of their complaints; but as Masinissa was the ally of Rome, the interest of the Carthaginians was neglected, and whatever seemed to depress their republic, was agreeable to the Romans. Cato, who was in the number of the commissioners, examined the capital of Africa with a jealous eye; he saw it with concern, rising as it were from its ruins; and when he returned to Rome, he declared in full senate, that the peace of Italy would never be established while Carthage was in being. The senators, however, were not guided by his opinion, and the *delenda est Carthago* of Cato did not prevent the Romans from acting with moderation. But while the senate were debating about the existence of Carthage, and while they considered it a dependent power, and not as an ally, the wrongs of Africa were without redress, and Masinissa continued his depredations. Upon this the Carthaginians resolved to do their cause that justice which the Romans had denied them; they entered the field against the Numidians, but they were defeated in a bloody battle by Masinissa, who was then 90 years old. In this bold measure they had broken the peace; and as their late defeat had rendered them desperate, they hastened with all possible speed to the capital of Italy to justify their proceedings, and to implore the forgiveness of the Roman senate. The news of Masinissa's victory had already reached Italy, and immediately some forces were sent to Sicily, and from thence ordered to pass into Africa. The ambassadors of Carthage received evasive and unsatisfactory answers from the senate; and when

they saw the Romans landed at Utica, they resolved to purchase peace by the most submissive terms which even the most abject slaves could offer. The Romans acted with the deepest policy: no declaration of war had been made, though hostilities appeared inevitable; and in answer to the submissive offers of Carthage the consuls replied, that to prevent every cause of quarrel, the Carthaginians must deliver into their hands 300 hostages, all children of senators, and of the most noble and respectable families. The demand was great and alarming, but was no sooner granted, than the Romans made another demand, and the Carthaginians were told that peace could not continue, if they refused to deliver up all their ships, their arms, engines of war, with all their naval and military stores. The Carthaginians complied, and immediately 40,000 suits of armour, 20,000 large engines of war, with a plentiful store of ammunition and missile weapons were surrendered. After this duplicity had succeeded, the Romans laid open the final resolutions of the senate, and the Carthaginians were then told that, to avoid hostilities, they must leave their ancient habitations and retire into the inland parts of Africa, and found another city, at the distance of not less than ten miles from the sea. This was heard with horror and indignation; the Romans were fixed and inexorable, and Carthage was filled with tears and lamentations. But the spirit of liberty and independence was not yet extinguished in the capital of Africa, and the Carthaginians determined to sacrifice their lives for the protection of their gods, the tombs of their forefathers, and the place which had given them birth. Before the Roman army approached the city, preparations to support a siege were made, and the ramparts of Carthage were covered with stones, to compensate for the weapons and instruments of war which they had ignorantly betrayed to the duplicity of their enemies. The town was blocked up by the Romans, and a regular siege begun. Two years were spent in useless operations, and Carthage seemed still able to rise from its ruins, to dispute for the empire of the world; when

Scipio, the descendant of the great Scipio, who finished the second Punic war, was sent to conduct the siege. Despair and famine now raged in the city, and Scipio gained access to the city walls, where the battlements were low and unguarded. His entrance into the streets was disputed with uncommon fury, the houses, as he advanced, were set on fire, to stop his progress; but when a body of 50,000 persons, of either sex, had claimed quarter, the rest of the inhabitants were disheartened, and such as disdained to be prisoners of war, perished in the flames, which gradually destroyed their habitations, 147 B. C., after a continuation of hostilities for three years. During 17 days Carthage was in flames; and the soldiers were permitted to redeem from the fire whatever possession they could. This remarkable event happened about the year of Rom. 605. The news of this victory caused the greatest rejoicings at Rome; and immediately commissioners were appointed by the Roman senate, not only to raze the walls of Carthage, but even to demolish and burn the very materials with which they were made; and in a few days, that city which had been once the seat of commerce, the model of magnificence, the common store of the wealth of nations, and one of the most powerful states of the world, left behind no traces of its splendour, of its power, or even of its existence.

PYRAMIDS (Battle of), see MOW-BAT BAY.

PYRENEES (Battle of), 29th and 30th July, 1812, between the French army under Soult, and the British under General Hill. The opposing armies viewed each other for some time, neither daring to begin the attack. At length, the French division attacked the British left wing under Sir Rowland Hill, and on the following day they obliged him to fall back. Lord Wellington seeing the enemy's line weakened, detached Lord Dalhousie and General Picton to drive them from the heights on which their right and left rested. This service having been accomplished, the centre advanced to join the attack. The French retired from one of their strongest positions, placing a strong rear guard in the pass of

HISTORY.

Donna Maria, from which it was driven by Dalhousie. Having endeavoured to make another stand, they were dislodged by a single British division, and Soult, who had been ordered to celebrate Bonaparte's birth-day in the town of Vittoria, was reluctantly compelled to solemnize that anniversary in France.

PYRRHUS, a King of Epirus, he was saved when an infant, by the fidelity of his servants, from the pursuits of the enemies of his father, who had been banished from his kingdom, and he was carried to the court of Glaucias King of Illyricum, who educated him with great tenderness. Cassander, King of Macedonia, wished to despatch him, as he had so much to dread from him; but Glaucias not only refused to deliver him up into the hands of his enemy, but he even went with an army and placed him on the throne of Epirus, though only twelve years of age. About five years after, the absence of Pyrrhus to attend the nuptials of one of the daughters of Glaucias, raised new commotions. The monarch was expelled from his throne by Neoptolemus, who had usurped it after the death of Æacides; and being still without resources, he applied to his brother-in-law Demetrius for assistance. He accompanied Demetrius at the battle of Ipsus, and afterwards passed into Egypt, where by his marriage with Antigone the daughter of Berenice, he soon obtained a sufficient force to attempt the recovery of his throne. He was successful in the undertaking, but to remove all causes of quarrel, he took the usurper to share with him the royalty, and some time after he put him to death under pretence that he had attempted to poison him. In the subsequent years of his reign, Pyrrhus engaged in the quarrels which disturbed the peace of the Macedonian monarchy; he marched against Demetrius. By dissimulation he ingratiated himself in the minds of his enemy's subjects, and when Demetrius laboured under a momentary illness, Pyrrhus made an attempt upon the crown of Macedonia, which, if not then successful, soon after rendered him master of the kingdom. This he shared with Lysimachus for seven months, till the jealousy of the

Macedonians, and the ambition of his colleague, obliged him to retire. Pyrrhus was meditating new conquests, when the Tarentines invited him to Italy to assist them against the encroaching power of Rome. He gladly accepted the invitation, but his passage across the Adriatic proved nearly fatal, and he reached the shores of Italy, after the loss of the greatest part of his troops in a storm. At his entrance into Tarentum, B. C. 280, he began to reform the manners of the inhabitants, and by introducing the strictest discipline among the troops, to accustom them to bear fatigue and to despise dangers. In the first battle which he fought with the Romans, he obtained the victory, but for this he was more particularly indebted to his elephants, whose bulk and uncommon appearance astonished the Romans and terrified their cavalry. The number of the slain was equal on both sides, and the conqueror said that such another victory would totally ruin him. He also sent Cineas, his chief minister, to Rome, and though victorious, he sued for peace. These offers of peace were refused. A second battle was fought near Asculum, but the slaughter was so great, and the valour so conspicuous on both sides, that the Romans and their enemies reciprocally claimed the victory as their own. Pyrrhus still continued the war in favour of the Tarentines, when he was invited into Sicily by the inhabitants, who laboured under the yoke of Carthage, and the cruelty of their own petty tyrants. His fondness of novelty soon determined him to quit Italy; he left a garrison at Tarentum, and crossed over to Sicily, where he obtained two victories over the Carthaginians, and took many of their towns. He was for a while successful, and formed the project of invading Africa; but soon his popularity vanished. He had no sooner arrived at Tarentum than he renewed hostilities with the Romans with great acrimony, but when his army of 80,000 men had been defeated by 20,000 of the enemy, under Curius, he left Italy with precipitation, B. C. 274, ashamed of the enterprise. In Epirus he attacked Antigonus, who was then on the Macedonian throne. He gained some advantages over his enemy, and was

at last restored to the throne of Macedonia. He afterwards marched against Sparta, at the request of Cleonymus, but when all his vigorous operations were insufficient to take the capital of Laconia, he retired to Argos where the treachery of Aristenus invited him. The Argives desired him to retire, and not to interfere in the affairs of their republic which were confounded by the ambition of two of their nobles. He complied with their wishes, but in the night he marched his forces into the town, and might have made himself master of the place had he not retarded his progress by entering it with his ele-

phants. The combat that ensued was obstinate and bloody, and the monarch, to fight with more boldness, and to encounter dangers with more facility, exchanged his dress. He was attacked by one of the enemy, but as he was going to run him through in his own defence, the mother of the Argive, who saw her son's danger from the top of a house, threw down a tile, and brought Pyrrhus to the ground. His head was cut off, and carried to Antigonus, who gave his remains a magnificent funeral, and presented his ashes to his son Helenus, 272 years before the Christian era.

Q.

QUADI, a people of ancient Germany, between the Danube and Bohemia, and who, in the time of Mark Antony, passed the Danube, and fell upon the territories of the empire. In the following ages they did the same, and in the reign of Valentinian, joining with their neighbours, they advanced as far as Aquileia.

QUATRE BRAS (Battle of), between the British and the French, June 16, 1815. The French commenced their attack in the afternoon, but the foremost division under General Foy being compelled to retreat in disorder, his first brigade was charged and routed by the Highland regiments. The 42d Highlanders pushed forward in line after the fugitives; but, the ground being covered with high corn, they exposed themselves unawares to a body of the enemy's cavalry, when nearly two companies were cut off before the hollow square could be formed. The rest of the regiment, supported by the 92d, repelled the charges. Ney directed two regiments of cuirassiers to advance in a solid column against the centre of the British position. They galloped down the causeway toward Quatre Bras; but, a part of the 92d received them with so severe a fire, that with the discharge from a battery of two guns opposite, it threw the entire column into confusion.

The road was strewn with killed and wounded; and, the remaining horsemen fled to the rear of the army. About three o'clock the Duke of Wellington came on the field with the British guards. The French having gained possession of the Bois de Bossu, which enfiladed the British position, were driven out by General Maitland, with the Guards, and the British remained masters of their position. In this obstinate conflict they lost many excellent officers, among whom was the Duke of Brunswick, who was shot in a desperate charge, which he headed in person. On the British gaining intelligence of the retreat of the Prussians from Ligny, the British fell back to Waterloo on the 17th. The enemy attacked the retiring army near the village of Genappes, when Lord Uxbridge ordered the 7th hussars to charge the Polish lancers, which being ineffectual, he ordered up the 1st guards, who soon bore down the ranks opposed to them, and both lancers and cuirassiers fled in the greatest disorder.

QUEBEC (Siege of), in 1758. Major-general Wolfe having arrived with his forces in the river St. Lawrence, near Quebec, found M. de Montcalm encamped with 10,000 men on the left bank of the river. On the 31st July, the British general made des-

HISTORY.

positions for an assault, under cover of the cannon from the men-of-war; but, the English grenadiers from too much impetuosity, being thrown into confusion, no exertion could recover the fortune of the day, and Wolfe was obliged to retreat with loss. This repulse, however, only roused the energies of his mind: a new scheme was planned for landing the troops on the northern bank of the river, and by scaling the heights of Abraham, to gain possession of the grounds at the back of the town. Admiral Saunders approving of this enterprise, the debarkation was accomplished in the night, and the troops at length gained the heights of Abraham, and immediately formed in order of battle. M. de Montcalm advanced to the attack of the English with great intrepidity. A furious contest ensued, and Wolfe, who stood in the front of the line, early received a shot in the wrist, to which he paid no regard; but, advancing at the head of the grenadiers, another ball pierced his breast, and compelled him to quit the scene of action. The wound was mortal; but before he died, he heard the French were flying. "Then," said he, "I die contented;" and almost instantly expired. This battle was fatal to the commanders of both nations; but, the advantage was on the side of the English. Quebec was obliged to surrender, and at length the conquest of Canada was completed, by the capture of Montreal, under General Amherst. In 1775 General Montgomery and Colonel Arnold attempted to take Quebec by storm, but being overpowered, Montgomery fell, and Arnold was compelled to retreat. (See *Canada*).

QUEENSBERRY (Duke of), was implicated in Jacobitical intrigues in the reign of Anne, and being suspected was superseded in his commission, to make room for another

nobleman. He soon after opened the Scottish parliament, for the purpose of having the union of that country with England ratified.

QUENTIN (St.), a considerable town in the north-east of France. The French were defeated near this place in a general engagement by the Spaniards, in 1587.

QUESNE (Abraham du), a gallant officer, was born in Normandy in 1610. He was brought up in the marine service, under his father; and in 1644 went to Sweden, where he became an admiral. On his return to France in 1647, he exerted himself effectually in restoring the navy. He was next employed against the Dutch, whom he defeated in three engagements, in the last of which De Ruyter was killed. Du Quesne also compelled Tripoli to make peace with France; after which he brought Algiers and Genoa to terms of submission. He died in 1688.

QUIBERON, the scene of an affecting disaster in June and July, 1795. The French emigrants in England having prevailed on the British government to land them in Quiberon Bay, they were soon overpowered by the republican troops under General Hoche; when 500 having surrendered themselves as prisoners of war, were guillotined by order of Tallien.

QUILOA, a city of eastern Africa, where the Portuguese, after repeated attacks, established themselves in 1529; but, having made Mosambique the centre of their settlements, Quiloa fell into decay, and was wrested from them by the Imam of Mascat, in whose possession it now remains.

QUINTILIUS (Marcus Aurelius), brother to the Emperor Claudius, and succeeded him in 270, but his severity rendering him odious, the soldiers killed him seventeen days after his investiture in the empire.

RAAB, in Hungary (Battle of), June 14, 1809, where the Austrians commanded by the Archduke John, were defeated by the French under Eugene Beauharnois, Viceroy of Italy.

BABIRIUS (C.), a Roman knight, who lent an immense sum of money to Ptolemy Anletes, king of Egypt. The monarch afterwards, not only refused to repay him, but even confined him, and endangered his life. Babirius escaped from Egypt with difficulty, but at his return to Rome, he was accused by the senate of having lent money to an African prince, for unlawful purposes. He was ably defended by Cicero, and acquitted with difficulty.

RACHINGE, a French prince who lived in the sixth century, and rendered himself odious by his cruelties. A young gentleman in his service having privily married a lady of his house without acquainting him therewith, this prince is said to have shot them up both alive in a thick wooden trunk, and buried them. This was the last act of his cruelties, for, having conspired some time after against Childbert I., he was taken by that king's guards and cut to pieces, and by Childbert's command cast to the dogs.

RADAGAIUSUS, a Scythian, and king of the Goths. In 405 he passed into Italy with an army of 200,000 Goths, who ruthed all the towns they met with in their way, and practised the most horrible cruelties upon the people. The forces of the Emperor Honorius were too weak to oppose this torrent, so that he was obliged to make use of the troops of the other Goths and Huns, under the conduct of Haldin and Sarus; but, before they came to engage, the army of Radagaisus was struck with such a panic, that the prince retreated and was killed in his flight.

RADSTADT (Congress of), assembled January 1, 1798, to settle the disputes between France and the Germanic empire. At the termination of the conferences the French plen-

potentiaries expressed an intention of setting out in three days for Paris, but on applying for a safe conduct, they were ordered to quit the territory of Gerubach and the imperial army in the space of 24 hours. At the same moment 400 hussars entered Radstadt, and took possession of the gates. About nine in the evening the French ministers were in their carriages, and, after some altercation they obtained leave to quit the town; but, they had scarcely proceeded 500 paces from the gate, when a troop of hussars rushed out from a wood, and surrounded the first carriage, in which was Jean Debrie, with his wife and children. Mistaking these ruffians for a patrol, Debrie held his passport out at the window, mentioning his name and quality; but, he was immediately dragged out and wounded in so terrible a manner by the sabres of his assailants, that he was left for dead, though he afterwards contrived to crawl into an adjacent ditch. The second carriage was then stopped, containing Debrie's domestics, who escaped with a few blows. Bonnier was dragged from the third carriage by one of the hussars, who cut off his hand, head, and arms. Rosensteil, the secretary of legation jumped out of his carriage, and made his escape; but Roberjot was barbarously murdered, whilst his distracted wife held him strongly locked in her arms. The assassin then retired, and the carriages, ladies, and servants, returned to Radstadt, whither Rosensteil came the same night, and Jean Debrie the next morning. Various conjectures were afloat respecting this horrible transaction, and two imperial officers were arrested, but the trial did not take place.

RAHMANIE, where the French, during their occupation of Egypt in 1801, attempted to make a stand against the British army; but the town was taken, and the division defending it compelled to surrender.—See *Egypt*.

RALEGH, or **RALEIGH** (Sir Wal-

HISTORY.

ter), was born at Budley, in Devonshire, in 1552. He served in the Netherlands; and in 1579 accompanied his half-brother, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, on a voyage to America. On his return, he distinguished himself against the Irish rebels, and was joined in a commission for the government of Munster. In 1584 he obtained letters patent for discovering unknown countries, by virtue of which he took possession of that part of America, which was afterwards called, in honour of Elizabeth, Virginia. Soon after this he received the honour of knighthood, was elected into parliament for Devonshire, made warden of the Stannaries, and also rewarded with several grants of land in England and Ireland. In 1588 he bore an active part in the destruction of the Spanish armada; and the year following he accompanied the King of Portugal to his dominions, for which the queen gave him a gold chain. In 1592 he commanded an expedition against Panama. Soon after this he fell under the royal displeasure, on account of an illicit amour with the daughter of Sir Nicholas Throgmorton, though Raleigh acted honourably in marrying the lady. In 1595 he engaged in an enterprise for the conquest of Guiana, where he took the city of San Josef. The year following he displayed great valour in the expedition against Cadiz; and he was also appointed to a command in the armament sent out to intercept the Spanish plate fleet, which he would have captured had he not been thwarted by the Earl of Essex. The ruin of that unfortunate nobleman was hastened by Raleigh, who little thought that he was thereby preparing the way for his own destruction. On the accession of James, he was deprived of his preferments, and brought to trial at Winchester, for conspiring, with Lord Cobham and others, to place Arabella Stewart on the throne. Raleigh was condemned; but the sentence was respited, and he lay twelve years in the Tower. In 1616 he was released, and intrusted with a squadron destined against Guiana; but the enterprise failed, after an attack on the town of St. Thome, where Sir Walter's eldest son was killed. When

Raleigh landed in England, he was arrested, and sent to the Tower, from whence he endeavoured to make his escape, but was taken, and received sentence of death, which was carried into execution in Old Palace Yard, Oct. 29, 1618.

RAMILIES (Battle of), in Brabant, in 1706. The victories obtained about this time by the allies in Spain determined Louis to assemble all his forces in Flanders and on the Rhine. Villeroi was sent to check the conquests of the Duke of Marlborough. His army was attacked by Marlborough near the village of Ramilies with such impetuosity, that the French were scarcely assailed when they were vanquished. The troops of the royal household, however, on the right, forced the Dutch and Danish cavalry to retreat towards the left, and would have completely routed them had not Marlborough hastened to their succour. The troops of the royal household were driven back, and their ranks broken. The detachments stationed in the village were either put to death or made prisoners; and Villeroi and the Elector of Bavaria escaped with great difficulty. In the tumultuous disorder of the French troops, the fugitives, who were pursued by the enemy's cavalry, were impeded in their retreat by the baggage, and great numbers of them were slain. The field of battle was strewn with 8000 killed, and 6000 were made prisoners. Thus the most formidable army which Louis XIV. had raised for a considerable time, as the last effort of his despair, melted away with the glory of the nation, of which it was the sole resource.

RAS EL RHYMA, a town of Arabia, the capital of the pirate coast. The depredations of the pirates from this quarter became so formidable, that in 1809, the British fitted out an expedition against them. On the 18th of Nov. the town was taken by storm, the guns spiked, and ships burned. The enemy having repaired their losses, the British fitted out another expedition against them with equal success.

BATHENAU, a town in Prussia, near which, Frederic William surprised and defeated the Swedes in

1678, to commemorate which event, a colossal statue of the victor is erected on the spot.

RATHMINES, in Ireland, where, during the time of Charles I., the royalists under the Duke of Ormond were routed by the parliamentary troops, with the loss of their baggage and ammunition, 4000 killed, and 2500 prisoners.

RATISBON, an ancient city in Germany, celebrated as the scene of some obstinate contests between the French and Austrians, in April, 1809.

RAUCOUX (Battle of), between the French forces, commanded by Marshal Saxe; and the Allies, commanded by Prince Charles, in the month of October, 1745. Marshal Saxe proposed to his adversary to take up winter quarters, as the troops on both sides had been harassed since the commencement of the year. To this proposition Prince Charles replied, that he had neither orders nor counsel to receive from Marshal Saxe. "Well," said the Marshal, since that is the case, I will find a way to make him yield." He accordingly ordered the preparations to be made for attacking the enemy on the following day. In the evening, however, a play was performed in the camp. When the curtain dropped, Madame Favart, Saxe's mistress, came forward, and addressed the audience in the following terms: "Gentlemen, to-morrow there will not be any performance, on account of the battle; but the day after we shall have the honour to give you," &c.—Marshal Saxe was not worse than his word, since the battle of Raucoux terminated in the defeat of the allies. They lost twelve thousand men in killed, and three thousand prisoners. On their side the French had a thousand killed. The night alone prevented the entire destruction of the allied army.

RAVAILLAC, a fanatic, who assassinated Henry IV. of France, May 14, 1610. The king had got into his carriage at four in the afternoon, to pay a visit to his minister Sully. He had been followed eight days by the regicide, who had a poignard in his hand, and had not quitted the side of the carriage since its departure from the palace of the Louvre. In the rue de la Ferronnerie, a very

narrow street, there was a stoppage which induced the monarch to alight from his carriage. While he was stepping out, the assassin stabbed him twice with his poignard; the second blow was fatal, and the corpse was conveyed to the Louvre. Ravallac was seized, and put to death by the most horrid tortures which cruelty could devise.

RAVENNA, in Italy, was made a Roman colony by Augustus. The emperor Honorius made it his residence; and Theodoric, king of the Ostrogoths, in the 5th century, fixed the seat of his empire here. In the 8th century, Pepin, father of Charlemagne, took Ravenna, and made it over to the see of Rome. In 1512, a battle was fought here between the French and Spaniards, when the former being victorious, took Ravenna by assault, and plundered the city.

RE, an island on the west coast of France, ravaged by the English in 1386. In 1627, an attempt was made by an army under Villiers, duke of Buckingham; but the resistance was vigorous, and he was obliged to embark.

READING, in Berkshire, inhabited by the Saxons before the invasion of the Danes. In 1642, the town was garrisoned by the parliamentary troops, but their commander withdrew on the approach of the king. It was retained by the royal party till the siege of 1643, by the earl of Essex; when Sir Arthur Ashton being wounded, the command devolved on Colonel Fielding. This officer surrendered on rather unfavourable conditions, for which he was condemned to death by a court-martial, but afterwards pardoned, on account of his numerous services.

REBELLIONS remarkable in British history.—Against William I., in favour of Edgar Atheling, by the Scots and Danes, A.D. 1069—Against William II., in favour of his brother Robert, 1068; extinguished 1069—Of the Welsh, who defeated the Normans and English, 1095—In England, in favour of the Empress Maude, 1139; ended 1153—Prince Richard against his father, Henry II., 1189—Of the Barons, April, 1215; compromised by the grant of Magna Charta, June 15 following—Of ditto, 1263; ended 1267—Of the lords spi-

HISTORY.

ritual and temporal against Edward II., on account of his favourites, the Gavestons, 1312; and again on account of the Spensers, 1321—Of Walter, the tiler, of Deptford, vulgarly called Wat Tyler, occasioned by the brutal rudeness of a tax-gatherer to his daughter: having killed the collector in his rage, he raised a party to oppose the tax itself, which was a grievous poll-tax, 1381—Of the Duke of Gloucester and other lords, 1388—Of Henry duke of Lancaster, who caused Richard II. to be deposed, 1394—In Ireland, when Roger, earl of March, the viceroy and presumptive heir to the crown, was slain, 1399: see Richard II.—Of the English and Welsh, 1400—Against Henry IV. by confederated lords, 1403—Under the Earl of Northumberland, who was defeated at Bramham Moor, and slain, 1456—Of Jack Cade, in favour of the Duke of York, 1450—In favour of the house of York, 1452, which ended in the imprisonment of Henry VI., and seating Edward IV., of York, on the throne, 1460—Of the English in Yorkshire, owing to some encroachment respecting St. Leonard's hospital in York, 1460—Under Warwick and Clarence, 1470, which ended with the expulsion of Edward IV., and the restoration of Henry VI. the same year—Under Edward IV., 1471, which ended with the death of Henry VI.—Of the Earl of Richmond against Richard III., 1485, which ended with the death of Richard—Under Lambert Simnel, who pretended to be Richard III.'s nephew, 1486, which ended the same year, in discovering that Simnel was a baker's son: he was pardoned—Under Perkin Warbeck, 1492, which ended in the execution of Warbeck, 1499—Under Flammoc, 1497, owing to taxes, which ended in the battle of Blackheath—Of the English, on account of destroying the monasteries, 1536; ended the same year—Of ditto, in the west, owing to enclosures and oppressive of the gentry, June, 1549: suppressed the same year—Of ditto, in Norfolk, headed by Ket, the tanner, but soon suppressed, August, 1549—In favour of Lady Jane Grey, against Queen Mary, 1553, which ended in the death of Lady Jane—Of Sir Thomas

Wyat, against the queen's marriage with Philip of Spain, &c., 1554—Of the Roman Catholics against Queen Elizabeth, 1559; suppressed the same year—In the north of England, 1569—Of the Irish, under the Earl of Tyrone, 1599; suppressed 1601—Under the Earl of Essex, against Elizabeth, 1600, which ended with his death, 1601—Against Charles I., 1639, which ended with his death, 1649—Of the Irish, under Roger More, Sir Phelim O'Neill, &c., against the English in Ireland, 1641; ended, 1651—Of the Scotch, 1688—Under the Duke of Monmouth, 1685, which ended in his death—Of the Scotch, under the old Pretender, 1715; quelled 1716—Of the Scotch, under the young Pretender, 1745; quelled 1746—Of the Americans, on account of taxes, 1774—In Ireland, May 24, 1798.

REFORMATION, that great change in the corrupted system of Christianity, begun by Luther in the year 1517. Leo X., when raised to the papal throne, found the revenues of the church exhausted by the vast projects of his two ambitious predecessors, Alexander VI. and Julius II. His own temper, naturally liberal and enterprising, rendered him incapable of that severe and patient economy which the situation of his finances required. On the contrary, his schemes for aggrandizing the family of Medici, his love of splendour, his taste for pleasure, and his magnificence in rewarding men of genius, involved him daily in new expenses; in order to provide a fund for which, he tried every device that the fertile invention of priests had fallen upon, to drain the credulous multitude of their wealth. Among others, he had recourse to a sale of indulgences.—The right of promulgating these indulgences in Germany, together with a share in the profits arising from the sale of them, was granted to Albert, elector of Mentz, and archbishop of Magdeburg, who, as his chief agent for retailing them in Saxony, employed Tetzel, a Dominican friar of licentious morals, but of an active spirit, and remarkable for his noisy and popular eloquence. He, assisted by the monks of his order, executed the commission with great zeal and success, but

with little discretion or decency; and though by magnifying excessively the benefit of their indulgences, and by disposing of them at a very low price, they carried on for some time an extensive and lucrative traffic among the credulous and the ignorant; the extravagance of their assertions, as well as the irregularities in their conduct, came at last to give general offence. Whilst Luther was at the height of his reputation and authority, Tetzel began to publish indulgences in the neighbourhood of Wittenberg, and to ascribe to them the same imaginary virtues which had, in other places, imposed on the credulity of the people. As Saxony was not more enlightened than the other provinces of Germany, Tetzel met with prodigious success there. It was with the utmost concern that Luther beheld the artifices of those who sold, and the simplicity of those who bought indulgences. The opinions of Thomas Aquinas and the other schoolmen, on which the doctrine of indulgences was founded, had already lost much of their authority with him; and the Scriptures, which he began to consider as the great standard of theological truth, afforded no countenance to a practice equally subversive of faith and of morals. His warm and impetuous temper did not suffer him long to conceal such important discoveries, or to continue a silent spectator of the delusion of his countrymen. From the pulpit, in the great church at Wittenberg, he inveighed bitterly against the irregularities and vices of the monks who published indulgences; he ventured to examine the doctrines which they taught, and pointed out to the people the danger of relying for salvation upon any other means than those appointed by God in his word. The boldness and novelty of these opinions drew great attention; and being recommended by the authority of Luther's personal character, and delivered with a popular and persuasive eloquence, they made a deep impression on his hearers. Encouraged by the favourable reception of his doctrines among the people, he wrote to Albert, elector of Mentz and archbishop of Magdeburg, to whose jurisdiction that part of Saxony was subject, and remonstrated

warmly against the silly opinions, as well as wicked lives, of the preachers of indulgences; but he found that prelate too deeply interested in their success to correct their abuses. His next attempt was to gain the suffrage of men of learning. For this purpose he published 95 theses, containing his sentiments with regard to indulgences. These he proposed, not as points fully established, or of undoubted certainty, but as subjects of inquiry and disputation; he appointed a day, on which the learned were invited to impugn them, either in person or by writing; to the whole he subjoined solemn protestations of his high respect for the apostolic see, and of his implicit submission to its authority. No opponent appeared at the time prefixed; the theses spread over Germany with astonishing rapidity; they were read with the greatest eagerness; and all admired the boldness of the man, who had ventured not only to call in question the plenitude of papal power, but to attack the Dominicans, armed with all the terrors of inquisitorial authority.—The friars of St. Augustin, Luther's own order, gave no check to the publication of these uncommon opinions. Luther had, by his piety and learning, acquired extraordinary authority among his brethren; he professed the highest regard for the authority of the pope; his professions were at that time sincere; and as a secret enmity subsisted among all the monastic orders of the Romish church, the Augustins were highly pleased with his invectives against the Dominicans, and hoped to see them exposed to the hatred and scorn of the people. His sovereign, the elector of Saxony, the wisest prince at that time in Germany, secretly encouraged his attempts, and flattered himself that this dispute among the ecclesiastics themselves might give some check to the exactions of the court of Rome, which the secular princes had long, though without success, been endeavouring to oppose. Several theses appeared in opposition to the 95 published by Luther; and the arguments produced for his constitution were the sentiments of schoolmen, the conclusions of the canon law, and the decrees of popes. In the

HISTORY.

mean time, these novelties in Luther's doctrines, which interested all Germany, excited little attention and no alarm in the court of Rome. Leo, fond of elegant and refined pleasures, intent upon great schemes of policy, a stranger to theological controversies, and apt to despise them, regarded with the utmost indifference the operations of an obscure friar, who, in the heart of Germany, carried on a scholastic disputation in a barbarous style. He imputed the whole to monastic enmity and emulation, and seemed inclined not to interpose in the contest, but to allow the Augustins and Dominicans to wrangle about the matter with their usual animosity.—The solicitations, however, of Luther's adversaries, together with the surprising progress which his opinions made in different parts of Germany, roused at last the attention of the court of Rome, and obliged Leo to take measures for the security of the church against an attack that now appeared too serious to be despised. For this end he summoned Luther to appear at Rome, within 60 days, before the auditor of the chamber, and the inquisitor-general, Prierias, who had written against him, whom he empowered jointly to examine his doctrines, and to decide concerning them. He wrote, at the same time, to the elector of Saxony, beseeching him not to protect a man whose heretical and profane tenets were so shocking to pious ears; and enjoined the provincial of the Augustins to check, by his authority, the rashness of an arrogant monk, which brought disgrace upon the order of St. Augustin, and gave offence and disturbance to the whole church. The professors in the university of Wittemberg, anxious for Luther's safety, wrote to the pope, and, after employing several pretexts to excuse Luther from appearing at Rome, entreated Leo to commit the examination of his doctrines to some persons of learning and authority in Germany. The elector requested the same thing of the pope's legate at the diet of Augsburg; and as Luther himself, who at that time did not even entertain the smallest suspicion concerning the divine origin of papal authority, had written to

Leo a submissive letter, promising an unreserved compliance with his will, the pope gratified them so far as to empower his legate in Germany, cardinal Cajetan, a Dominican, eminent for scholastic learning, and passionately devoted to the Roman see, to hear and determine the cause.—Luther, having obtained the emperor's safe conduct, immediately repaired to Augsburg. The cardinal required him, by virtue of the apostolic powers with which he was clothed, to retract his errors with regard to indulgences and the nature of faith, and to abstain for the future from the publication of new and dangerous opinions. Luther, fully persuaded of the truth of his own tenets, and confirmed in the belief of them by the approbation which they had met with among persons conspicuous both for learning and piety, was surprised at this abrupt mention of a recantation, before any endeavours were used to convince him that he was mistaken. He declared with the utmost firmness, that he could not, with a safe conscience, renounce opinions which he believed to be true; nor should any consideration ever induce him to do what would be so base in itself, and so offensive to God. At the same time, he continued to express no less reverence than formerly for the authority of the apostolic see; he signified his willingness to submit the whole controversy to certain universities which he named, and promised neither to write nor preach concerning indulgences for the future, provided his adversaries were likewise enjoined to be silent with respect to them. All these offers Cajetan disregarded or rejected, and still insisted peremptorily, on a simple recantation, threatening him with ecclesiastical censures, and forbidding him to appear again in his presence, unless he resolved instantly to comply with what he had required.—The judges before whom Luther had been required to appear at Rome, without waiting for the expiration of the sixty days allowed him in the citation, had already condemned him as an heretic. Leo had, in several of his briefs and letters, stigmatized him as a child of

iniquity, and a man given up to a reprobate sense. As every step which was taken by the court of Rome, convinced Luther that Leo would soon proceed to the most violent measures against him, he had recourse to the only expedient in his power, in order to prevent the effect of the papal censures. He appealed to a general council, which he affirmed to be the representative of the catholic church, and superior in power to the pope, who, being a fallible man, might err, as St. Peter, the most perfect of his predecessors, had erred.—It soon appeared that Luther had not formed rash conjectures concerning the intentions of the church of Rome. A bull of a date prior to his appeal, was issued by the pope, in which he magnified the virtue and efficacy of indulgences; he required all Christians to assent to what he delivered as the doctrine of the catholic church, and subjected those, who should hold or teach any contrary opinion, to the heaviest ecclesiastical censures. Among Luther's followers, this bull, which they considered as an unjustifiable effort of the pope in order to preserve that rich branch of his revenue which arose from indulgences, produced little effect. But among the rest of his countrymen, such a clear decision of the sovereign pontiff against him, and enforced by such dreadful penalties, must have been attended with consequences very fatal to his cause, if these had not been prevented, in a great measure, by the death of the emperor Maximilian, whom both his principles and his interest prompted to support the authority of the holy see. To this event was owing the suspension of any further proceedings against Luther for 18 months. Perpetual negotiations, however, in order to bring the matter to some amicable issue, were carried on during that space. The manner in which these were conducted having given Luther many opportunities of observing the corruption of the court of Rome, he began to utter some doubts with regard to the divine original of the papal authority. A public disputation was held upon this important question at Leipsic, between Luther and Eccius, one of his most

learned and formidable antagonists; but it was fruitless and indecisive. Nor did this spirit of opposition to the doctrines and usurpations of the Romish church break out in Saxony alone; an attack no less violent, and occasioned by the same causes, was made upon them about this time in Switzerland. The Franciscans being intrusted with the promulgation of indulgences in that country, executed their commission with the same indiscretion, which had rendered the Dominicans so odious in Germany. They proceeded nevertheless with uninterrupted success till they arrived at Zurich. There Zuinglius, a man not inferior to Luther in zeal and intrepidity, ventured to oppose them; and being animated with a republican boldness, he advanced with more daring and rapid steps to overturn the whole fabric of the established religion. The appearance of such a vigorous auxiliary, and the progress which he made, was at first matter of great joy to Luther. On the other hand, the decrees of the universities of Cologne and Louvaine, which pronounced his opinions to be erroneous, afforded great cause of triumph to his adversaries.—But the undaunted spirit of Luther acquired additional fortitude from every instance of opposition; and he began to shake the firmest foundations on which the wealth or power of the church were established. At last, on the 15th of June, 1520, the bull, so fatal to the church of Rome, was issued. Forty-one propositions, extracted out of Luther's works, are therein condemned as heretical, scandalous, and offensive to pious ears; all persons are forbidden to read his writings, upon pain of excommunication; such as had any of them in their custody, are commanded to commit them to the flames: he himself, if he did not, within 60 days, publicly recant his errors, and burn his books, is pronounced an obstinate heretic; is excommunicated, and delivered unto Satan for the destruction of his flesh; and all secular princes are required, under pain of incurring the same censure, to seize his person, that he might be punished as his crimes deserved.—This sentence, which he had for some time expected, did not disconcert or intimidate Luther. After

HISTORY.

renewing his appeal to the general council, he published remarks upon the bull of excommunication; and being now persuaded that Leo had been guilty both of impiety and injustice in his proceedings against him, he boldly declared the pope to be that man of sin, or antichrist, whose appearance is foretold in the New Testament; he declaimed against his tyranny and usurpations with greater violence than ever; he exhorted all Christian princes to shake off such an ignominious yoke; and boasted of his own happiness in being marked out as the object of ecclesiastical indignation, because he had ventured to assert the liberty of mankind. In the following year he was requested to appear before his avowed enemy, the Emperor Charles V., in the diet at Worms, when, unmoved by the apprehensions of his friends, who reminded him of the fate of Huss, he instantly obeyed, and there acknowledged, that his writings had occasionally been violent and acrimonious; but he refused to retract his opinions, until they should be proved erroneous by the scriptures. An edict, pronouncing him an excommunicated criminal, and commanding the seizure of his person as soon as the duration of the safe conduct which he had obtained should have expired, was immediately promulgated. Frederic the Wise, elector of Saxony, who had all along countenanced him without professing his doctrines, now withdrew him from the storm. As Luther was returning from Worms, a troop of horsemen, in masks, rushed from a wood, seized him, and conveyed him to the castle of Wartenberg, where he was concealed nine months, encouraging his adherents by his pen, and cheered in return by accounts of the rapid diffusion of his doctrines. John, the successor of Frederic, took a decisive step, and established the reformed religion in 1527 throughout his dominions. In a diet at Spire, held about the same time, the execution of the edict of Worms against the Lutherans, now too formidable to be oppressed with impunity, was suspended until the convocation of a general council, to remedy the disorders of the church. But in another diet held at the same place, in 1529, the suspen-

sion was revoked by a decree obtained through the influence of Charles; who then found himself at more leisure to push forward his views against the supporters of the reformation. Against this new decree, six princes, and the deputies of 13 imperial cities and towns, solemnly protested; and from this the appellation of Protestants became common to all who embraced the reformed religion. At the diet of Augsburg, in Swabia, the following year, a clear statement of the reformed faith, drawn up by Luther and Melancthon, was presented to Charles and the diet, on behalf of the Protestant members of the empire; and hence it obtained the name of "the Confession of Augsburg." This confession was received as the standard of the Protestant faith in Germany. The same or next year, the Protestant princes made the famous league of Smalkalde, for the mutual defence of their religion, which obliged the emperor to grant the Protestant Lutherans a toleration, till the differences in religion should be settled in a council, which he engaged himself to call in six months. The Protestant party gaining strength every day, instead of being viewed only as a religious sect, as hitherto, soon came to be considered as a political body of no small consequence; and having refused the bull for convening a council at Mantua, Charles summoned a general diet at Ratisbon, where a scheme of religion, for reconciling the two parties, was examined and proposed, but without effect. At length, in 1545, the famous Council of Trent was opened for accommodating the differences in religion; but the Protestants refused to attend or obey a council convoked in the name, and by the authority, of the pope, and governed by his legates. The following year Luther died, but the work of reformation which he had begun did not die with him; for though Charles, having concluded a treaty with the pope for the destruction of the reformed religion and its adherents, assembled troops on all sides, and was at first successful in the field, yet on the appearance of Maurice, elector of Saxony, in arms against him, with a force which he was wholly unpre-

pared to resist, he was checked in his career, and the consequences were, the "religious peace," concluded at Passau, in Bavaria, in 1552, and the complete security of religious freedom to the Protestant states in Germany, which they have enjoyed ever since. During the course of these events the reformed opinions were extending their influence in various other countries. Before this time, they were completely adopted in Sweden, and had likewise obtained perfect toleration in Denmark, where they were adopted soon after as the doctrines of the national church. They were, also, daily gaining converts in other kingdoms of Europe. They acquired many friends even in Italy. They privately diffused themselves in Spain, notwithstanding the crowded dungeons and busy flames of the inquisition. In France they had still more ample success, where their abettors have long been contemptuously termed Hugonots. This appellation was given to the Protestants in France in 1560, and is supposed by some to be derived from a gate in Tours called Hugon, where they first assembled. According to others, the name is taken from the first words of their original protest, or confession of faith, *Huc nos venturus*, &c. At Geneva, they were firmly established by Calvin; but their principal triumph was in Great Britain, where the papal power and jurisdiction were abolished by parliament, the king was declared supreme head of the church, and all the authority of which the popes were deprived was vested in him. In England, that vast fabric of ecclesiastical dominion, which had been raised with such art, and of which the foundations seemed to have been laid so deep, being no longer supported by the veneration of the people, was overturned in a moment. In the reign of Edward VI. a total separation was made from the church of Rome in articles of doctrine, as well as in matters of discipline and jurisdiction.—The Roman Catholics themselves are ready to admit, that the papal doctrines and authority would soon have fallen into ruin in all parts of the world, in consequence of the opposition made to them by Luther and his

adherents, had not the forces of the secular arm, and the fire of the inquisition, been employed to support the tottering edifice. In the Netherlands particularly, the most grievous persecutions took place; so that, by the Emperor Charles V., upwards of 100,000 were destroyed, whilst still greater cruelties were exercised upon the people there by his son, Philip II. The formidable ministers of the inquisition put so many to death, and perpetrated such horrid acts of cruelty and oppression in Italy, &c., that most of the reformed consulted their safety by a voluntary exile, while others returned to the religion of Rome, at least in external appearance. In France, too, the Hugonots were persecuted with unparalleled fury; and, though many princes of the blood, and of the first nobility, had embraced their sentiments, yet in no part of the world did the reformers suffer more.

REGULUS (M. Attilius), a consul during the first Punic war. He reduced Brundisium; and, in his second consulship, he took sixty-four, and sunk thirty, galleys of the Carthaginian fleet on the coast of Sicily. Afterwards he landed in Africa; and so rapid was his success, that in a short time he defeated three generals, and made himself master of about two hundred places of consequence on the coast. The Carthaginians sued for peace, but the conqueror refused to grant it, and soon after he was defeated in a battle by Xanthippus, and 30,000 of his men were left on the field of battle, and 15,000 taken prisoners. Regulus was in the number of the captives, and he was carried in triumph to Carthage. He was afterwards sent by the enemy to Rome to propose an accommodation, and an exchange of prisoners; and, if his commission was unsuccessful, he was bound by the most solemn oaths to return to Carthage without delay. When he came to Rome, Regulus dissuaded his countrymen from accepting the terms which the enemy proposed; and when his opinion had had due influence on the senate, he then retired to Carthage, agreeable to his engagements. The Carthaginians were told that their offers of peace had been rejected at Rome by the

HISTORY.

means of Regulus; and, therefore, they prepared to punish him with the greatest severity. His eyebrows were cut, and he was exposed for some days to the excessive heat of the meridian sun, and afterwards confined in a barrel, whose sides were everywhere filled with large iron spikes, till he died in the greatest agonies.—His sufferings were heard at Rome, and the senate permitted his widow to inflict whatever punishments she pleased on some of the most illustrious captives of Carthage who were in their hands. She confined them also in presses filled with sharp iron points; and was so exquisite in her cruelty, that the senate at last interfered, and stopped the barbarity of her punishments.—Regulus died about 251 years before Christ.

REVICKZKY (Count Charles), a German statesman, was born in Hungary in 1737. He resided several years in London as envoy from the imperial court, and afterwards in a private capacity. He died at Vienna, in 1793.

REVOLUTIONS (Remarkable). The Assyrian empire destroyed, and that of the Medes and Persians founded by Cyrus the Great, 546 B.C.—The Macedonian empire, founded on the destruction of the Persian, on the defeat of Darius Codomanus, by Alexander the Great, 331 B.C.—The Roman empire established on the ruins of the Macedonian, or Greek, monarchy, by Julius Cæsar, 47 B.C.—The Eastern empire founded by Constantine the Great, on the final overthrow of the Romans, A.D. 306. The empire of the Western Franks began under Charlemagne, A.D. 792.—This empire underwent a new revolution, and became the German empire, under Rodolph of Augsburg, the head of the house of Austria, A.D. 1273, from whom it is also called the monarchy of the Austrians. The Eastern empire passed into the hands of the Turks, A.D. 1306; in England, in 1688; Poland, in 1704, and 1709, and 1725; Turkey, in 1730 and 1808; Persia, in 1748 and 1753; Russia, 1692, 1740, and 1702; Sweden, in 1772 and 1809; America, in 1775; France, in 1789; Holland, 1795; Venice, May 17, 1797; Rome,

Feb. 26, 1797; South America, April 19, 1810.

RHADAMISTA, the son of Pharasman king of Iberia, (now called Georgia in Turkey in Asia,) who, on a pretence of disagreement with his father, retired to his uncle Mithridates king of Armenia, whose daughter he married, but having, by his subtilty, gained the friendship of the people, he made a shew of reconciling himself to his father, to whom he went secretly to give instructions concerning the success of his design, and under pretence of making war upon the people of Albania, he raised a potent army, which he conducted to Armenia, where he besieged Mithridates in a fortress called Gornea. He now employed a new stratagem, and demanded a treaty of peace with his uncle, who came to meet him in a wood near unto Gornea. Rhadamista embraced Mithridates, and swore he would offer him no violence either by sword or poison. Preparations were made for the ceremony of the treaty; and because it was the custom of the country to tie the thumb, and draw blood thence and drink it, to ratify and confirm the alliance, Rhadamista gave orders to one whom he had appointed, to throw Mithridates down, when he took the king, his wife, and children prisoners, and afterwards caused them to be stifled with a pillow, being unwilling to violate the oath he had made at the beginning of their interview. Rhadamista was, however, conquered by Artaban king of the Parthians, A. D. 52; and being obliged to fly, he killed Zenobia his wife; at length his father Pharasman put him to death as a traitor.

RHEIMS, or **REIMS**, an ancient city of France, and the scene of a sharp contest in the spring of 1814. The Prussians entered it on the 12th of March, but were attacked on the 13th by Bonaparte, and driven from it, after the loss of their general and 2000 men.

RHINE, one of the largest rivers of Europe, which divides Germany from France. It rises in the Alps, and falls into the German Ocean. The river Rhine was a long time a barrier between the Romans and the Germans, and on that account its

banks" were covered with strong castles. J. Caesar was the first Roman who crossed it to invade Germany. The waters of that river were held in great veneration, and were supposed by the ancient Germans to have some peculiar virtue, as they threw their children into it, either to try the fidelity of the mothers, or to brace and invigorate their limbs. If the child swam on the surface, the mother was acquitted of suspicion, but if it sunk to the bottom, its origin was deemed illegitimate. In modern geography the Rhine is known as dividing itself into four large branches; the Waal, Lech, Issel, and the Rhine. That branch which still retains the name of Rhine, loses itself in the sands above modern Leyden. It is remarkable in modern times for giving its name to a famous confederation, called the "*Confederation of the Rhine*," for which see the article *Confederation*.

RHODE ISLAND, one of the United States, was founded by Roger Williams, in 1636. The new colonists here entered into a voluntary association, and framed a government composed of the whole body of freemen, for the preservation of peace, and the making of such laws as their situation might require. In 1644, a charter was obtained from the government of England, which gave the people of this colony abundant privileges to form such a constitution, and adopt such laws as they thought proper. By this frame of government the executive power was placed in the hands of a governor and four assistants. The legislative power remained in the people at large. In 1663, a new charter was granted to Rhode Island by Charles II., under which the state is still governed. The charters were too liberal for the taste of the English court, and it was determined to destroy them. In 1685, a *quo warranto* was issued against Rhode Island; and, in the succeeding year, the celebrated Sir Edmund Andros adopted the same measures towards this colony that had been pursued with the others of New England. The seal of the province was broken, the government dissolved, and the administration taken into his own hands. On his imprisonment in 1689,

the people resumed their charter, and the mode of government it had guaranteed. In 1774, on intelligence being received of the royal proclamation, prohibiting the exportation of military stores from Great Britain, the people of Rhode Island seized the cannon in the public batteries, and the assembly passed resolutions for obtaining arms and military stores, and for arming the inhabitants. In the different steps taken from this period to the declaration of independence, the people of Rhode Island concurred and lent their aid in support of the common cause. Rhode Island reaped great advantage from the new order of things. Little is recorded of its history from the era of the new constitution to the war of 1812. During the last contest with Great Britain, the majority of the people adopted the opinions and system of action of Massachusetts and Connecticut, and lent no voluntary aid to the measures of the general government.

RHODES, a celebrated island in the Carpathian sea, 120 miles in circumference, at the south of Caria, from which it is distant about twenty miles. Its principal cities were, Rhodes, founded about 408 years before the Christian era, Lindus, Camisus, and Jalyasus. Rhodes was famous for the siege which it supported against Demetrius. The Rhodians were originally governed by kings, and were independent, but this government was at last exchanged for a democracy and an aristocracy. They were naturally given up to commerce, and during many ages they were the most powerful nation by sea. Their authority was respected, and their laws were so universally approved, that every country made use of them to decide disputes concerning maritime affairs, and they were at last adopted by other commercial nations, and introduced into the Roman codes, from whence they have been extracted to form the basis of the maritime regulations of modern Europe. When Alexander made himself master of Asia, the Rhodians lost their independence, but they soon after asserted their natural privileges under his cruel successors, and continued to hold that influence among nations to which their mari-

HISTORY.

time power and consequence entitled them. They assisted Pompey against Cæsar, and were defeated by Cæsar, and became dependent upon the Romans. The island of Rhodes has been known by the several names of Ophiusa, Stadia, Telchinis, Corymbia, Trinacria, Æthrea, Asteria, Poëssa, Atabyria, Oloëssa, Marcia, and Pelagia.

RHOTOS, or **ROTASGUR**, a celebrated fortress of Hindostan, taken by the Afghan Shene Shah in 1542, and remained in the possession of the Afghans till 1678, when it capitulated after a blockade of several months to one of the generals of Akbar. It was taken by the British in 1764, but was ultimately ceded to the zemindar.

RICHARD I., King of England, surnamed Cœur de Lion, was born at Oxford, 1157, and was crowned at London Sept. 3, 1189; released the king and people of Scotland from their oaths of homage they had taken to his father for 10,000 marks, Dec. 5, 1189; embarked at Dover, Dec. 11; set out on the crusade, and joined Philip of France on the plains of Vezelay, June 29, 1190; took Messina the latter end of the year; married Berengera, daughter of the king of Navarre, May 12, 1191; defeated the Cyprians, and took their king prisoner, 1191; and was taken prisoner near Vienna, on his return home, by Leopold, Duke of Austria, Dec. 20, 1192, by whom he was detained two years, and was ransomed for 40,000*l.*, and set at liberty at Mentz. He returned to England March 20, 1194, but a war breaking out between England and France, King Richard besieged the castle of Chalus, near Limoges, in Normandy, where he was shot with an arrow, and died April 6, 1199; he was buried at Fonteverard, and succeeded by his brother.

RICHARD II., King of England, was born at Bourdeaux in 1367, and succeeded King Edward III. in 1377. Being only eleven years old when he came to the crown, the kingdom was governed, during his minority, by his uncles, the Dukes of Lancaster and Gloucester. His reign was disturbed by the famous rebellion of Wat Tyler and Jack Straw. He next found himself in-

volved in a war with the barons, who forced him at last to sacrifice his misleading favourites to their revenge. But the event which proved most fatal to him was the Duke of Gloucester's death, whom he caused to be smothered, and his unjust seizure of the Duke of Lancaster's goods upon his decease. Upon these provocations, Richard, having gone to Ireland to pacify a disturbance there, Henry, the young Duke of Lancaster, landed in England with some forces, which soon increased to a great number by the discontented party. The Duke of York, whom King Richard had left to govern the kingdom in his absence, could gain but little assistance to oppose the Duke of Lancaster. The king's affairs now bore so dismal an aspect, that he offered to resign his crown. On this, he was conducted to London, where he was lodged in the Tower. A parliament was summoned at Westminster, in which King Richard was charged with the breach of his coronation oath, in thirty-two articles; the result of which was, his solemn resignation of the crown to his cousin Henry, Duke of Lancaster, which was accepted by the parliament. Thus the house of Lancaster obtained the throne in the person of this Henry IV. of that name; till the house of York prevailing in the reign of Henry VI., the Lancastrian line lost the crown. Upon this resignation, King Richard was removed to Pomfret Castle, where he was soon after murdered, Feb. 13, 1400.

RICHARD III., formerly Duke of Gloucester, was the youngest brother of King Edward IV., and the last king of England of the line of York. This wicked prince, to obtain the crown and secure it when it was in his possession, spared nothing that stood in his way. Having first killed King Henry VI., and Prince Edward his son, he next procured the death of the Duke of Clarence, his own brother, by an impeachment of high-treason in the reign of Edward IV., Edward dying, left two sons in their nonage, Edward V., his next successor, and Richard his brother. Before Edward could be crowned, Richard, his uncle, seated himself on the throne by the assistance of the Duke of Buckingham. This being

done, he had Edward and his brother, then in the Tower, smothered in their beds. There was then at the court of the Duke of Bretagne, in France, Henry, earl of Richmond, the next heir to the house of Lancaster, whose advancement to the crown Berkingham, with some others of the conspiracy, resolved upon; with this sage proviso, that Henry should consent to marry the Lady Elizabeth, eldest daughter of King Edward IV., in order to unite the two houses of York and Lancaster; but before the plot was carried into execution, the duke being betrayed by an old servant of his, lost his head without any form of trial. Henry, in the mean time, was preparing to come over, and landed soon after with 300 men at Milford Haven. At last, with a body of 5000 men, he encountered King Richard at Bosworth, in Leicestershire, in 1485. The battle was sharp, and some time doubtful; and at last Henry gained the day, and by this single victory obtained the crown. Richard was killed in the field, and was buried at Leicester. (See *Bosworth Field*.)

RICHELIEU (Armand du Plessis), a cardinal and statesman, was born of a noble family at Paris, in 1585. He studied in the Sorbonne, and in 1607 obtained the bishopric of Lacon. He was also appointed grand-almoner, and in 1616 made secretary of state. When Mary de Medecis fell into disgrace, Richelieu was banished to Avignon, where he wrote his "Method of Controversy." Being soon after recalled to court, he brought about a reconciliation between the king and queen, for which he was rewarded with a cardinal's hat, and appointed prime minister, in which situation he displayed extraordinary talents. He subdued the Protestants, reduced Savoy, humbled Spain, struck terror into Germany, and commanded the admiration of all Europe. In the midst of this splendour, he died Dec. 4, 1642, and was buried at the Sorbonne, where Girardon constructed a magnificent mausoleum to his memory.

RIDLEY (Nicholas), a Protestant martyr, was born at Wilmontswick, in Tynedale, Northumberland. To qualify himself for divinity, he went to Paris, and studied some time in

the Sorbonne. On his return he was chosen proctor of the university, in which capacity he signed the declaration against the papal supremacy. He was also elected public orator, and archbishop Cranmer made him his chaplain. Soon after this he became master of Pembroke Hall, with which he held some considerable church preferment at Canterbury and Westminster. On the accession of Edward VI., he was consecrated bishop of Rochester; and, in 1550, was translated to London, where he discharged the duties of his office with unwearied diligence. He was also employed in all the ecclesiastical measures of that reign, particularly in the compiling of the liturgy, and the framing of the articles of religion. But one of the most distinguished occurrences in the life of this great prelate, was that of inciting King Edward to endow the three great foundations of Christ's, Bartholomew's, and St. Thomas's hospitals. It was the misfortune, however, of the bishop, to become the dupe of the Duke of Northumberland, who prevailed upon him to concur in the proclamation of Lady Jane Grey. For this he was committed to the Tower, and after a confinement of eight months, sent to Oxford, there to hold a disputation with the triumphant party. This mockery was followed by a degradation from the episcopal dignity, and sentence of condemnation to the flames, which he endured with the venerable Latimer before Balliol College, Oct. 15, 1553.

RIGA was taken by Gustavus king of Sweden in 1621. This place, which was strongly fortified, was garrisoned with a considerable body of veteran troops, whose attachment to Sigismund was almost incredible. It was, however, at length obliged to yield to the valour and resolution of the Swedish monarch, who, in consideration of the brave defence of the besieged, allowed them to capitulate on honourable terms.

RIOT in London in 1780, occasioned by the assembling of 100,000 religious zealots, under the name of the Protestant Association, who carried up their petitions to parliament against indulgences to the Catholics; and being followed by a loose mob the latter for three days destroyed

HISTORY.

the chapels and houses of the Catholics and others: but although several hundreds lost their lives by the soldiery and the executioner, not one of them was found to be a member of the petitioning associations.

RIOTS in British History. Some citizens of London, demolished the convent belonging to Westminster Abbey 1221.—The Goldsmiths' and Tailors' Company fought in the streets of London, 1262.—Norwich rioters burnt the cathedral and monastery, 1271.—At Edinburgh and Dumfries, on account of the union, 1707.—In London on account of Dr. Sacheverell's trial, and several dissenting meeting-houses broke open, 1709.—Riots of the Whig and Tory mobs, called Ormond and Newcastle mobs, 1715.—The Mug-house riot in Salisbury-court, between the Whigs and Tories 1716.—Of the Spitalfields weavers, 1736.—Between Irish, Welsh, and English haymakers, 1736.—At Edinburgh, 1736.—The Cornish tin-miners, 1737.—Of the nailers in Worcestershire, 1737.—Of the Spitalfields weavers, 1768.—In all parts of England, 1768 and 1767.—In St. George's-fields, 1768.—200,000*l.* damage done to prisons and private buildings in London, June 4 to 6, 1780, &c.—At Birmingham, July 14, 1791.—In various parts of Scotland, Aug. and Sept. 1797.—Of weavers, near Manchester, May 24, 1806.—Of weavers, near Nottingham, under the name of Luddites, Nov. 1811.

RIZZIO (David), a Piedmontese musician, who ingratiated himself into the favour of Mary queen of Scotland. He became her secretary for French despatches, and was the only avenue by which honours or emolument could be obtained; at the same time that he became more and more obnoxious to the whole kingdom, particularly to the nobles. He was barbarously assassinated by Darnley, the husband of Mary, on the suspicion of a criminal intercourse between her and Rizzio.

ROBERT II. king of Scotland, and first of the Stuarts, succeeded David Bruce, his uncle, in 1371. At the solicitation of Charles V. of France, he invaded England, and took Berwick and Perth, and defeated 15,000 English, who invaded

Scotland, under General Talbot. A truce being agreed betwixt the English and French soon after, in which the Scots were comprehended. The English invaded the Scots before the publication, wasting the lands of the Douglases and Lindseys. The truce being ended, the Scots invaded England; on which, Richard II. invaded Scotland with 60,000 foot and 8000 horse. The Scots, not having force enough to fight him, invaded England again, to divert him. The Scots designed to invade England again, but knowing the king to be of a peaceable inclination, and his eldest son unfit for war, they made application to Robert, earl of Fife, the second, and levied 30,000 men privately for the expedition. The Scots divided their army into two parts; the greatest commanded by the king's two sons, marched towards Carlisle. Douglas, with 300 horse and 2000 foot entered Northumberland. The great army carried all before them without opposition; but Douglas, having wasted the country as far as Durham, came before Newcastle, and threatened them with a siege. He staid before the town two days, which were spent in skirmishes; and at last the generals, Douglas and Piercy agreed upon a personal encounter, wherein Piercy was dismounted and disarmed; but his men coming to his rescue, he was saved. Douglas now marched off with his men, and attacked Otterburn castle. Douglas resolved to stay there and answer Piercy's challenge; who, marching against him with 16,000 men, had nearly surprised him at supper. But the alarm being given, and the Scots advantageously posted, the battle began with great vigour. Douglas broke into the thick of the enemy, and made a terrible slaughter, but before his men came up, he had received three mortal wounds. The English, at length, were totally routed, 1840 slain, 1000 wounded, and 1040 taken prisoners. The Scots carried off the Piercies, with four hundred prisoners of note; dismissed the rest; took Douglas's corps, with those of other great men, along with them, and buried them at Melrose. This victory was obtained July 21, 1338, but Douglas was so deeply lamented, that both the Scots armies

returned home as melancholy as if they had been conquered. King Robert died April 19, 1390, in the 19th year of his reign.

ROBERT III., called John Robert, succeeded Robert II. in 1390. He was the first who created dukes in Scotland; and his brother, the viceroy, was made Duke of Albany; but Douglas refused this new title. A war happened afterwards with England, in which the Earl of March took part with the English, who invaded the kingdom, and besieged the Edinburgh castle; the English returning without having effected their purpose, the Scots invaded Northumberland, and were surprised and defeated on returning with their spoil; when Archibald Douglas gathered 10,000 men, but was defeated, taken prisoner, and many of the nobles slain, by Henry Percy of Northumberland, and George earl of March abovementioned, May 7, 1401. In the mean time all things went to ruin in Scotland, by the tyranny of the governor, who starved his nephew, the prince, to death; so that the king was obliged to secure James by sending him to France; but landing at Flamborough in Yorkshire, he was detained prisoner by the English, contrary to the truce, which so afflicted his father, that he died April 1, 1406, and the government was settled upon his brother; during whose administration the English invaded Scotland, and overran the southern counties. In 1419 auxiliaries were sent to France under the Earl of Buchan, who defeated the Duke of Clarence; for which the Earl of Buchan was made Lord High Constable of France. Robert, the governor of Scotland, died in 1420, and his son Murdo succeeded him: during whose regency more auxiliaries were sent to France, and Douglas was created Duke of Touraine in that kingdom; but they were twice defeated by the English, under John duke of Bedford, who carried James I. king of Scotland with him, being still prisoner since his arrival at Flamborough; who, being prevailed upon to forbid his subjects to fight against that army where he was in person, they answered, that they did not acknowledge him for their king while he was in the power of his enemy. But

not long after, Murdo the governor being displeased with the insolence of his own sons, James I. was ransomed and brought home in 1423.

ROBESPIERRE (Maximilian Isidore), was born at Arras, in 1759. Having lost his father in his childhood, he was taken under the protection of the Bishop of Arras, who sent him to the college of Louis le Grand; after which, he studied the law, and was admitted an advocate in the council of Artois. About this time he published a treatise on electricity, and another on crimes and punishments, in which he denied the right of society to put offenders to death. At the beginning of the revolution, he was elected a member of the states-general, where he obtained the name of "Incorruptible," by his constant declaration against political corruption. The Jacobin club raised him to power; when a scene of blood followed, to which no parallel can be found in history. Robespierre and his creatures established the terrible tribunal, called the Committee of Public Safety, which spread dismay and death throughout France. At length a confederacy was formed against him, and he was arrested July 9, 1794, but not till his lower jaw was broken by a pistol-shot; and the next day he suffered under the guillotine, amidst the execrations of the multitude.

ROCHELLE LA, taken by Louis XIII. in 1637, after a memorable siege of 13 months, during which the inhabitants suffered all the horrors of famine.

ROCHFORD (Lady), was beheaded on Tower-hill together with Catherine Howard, queen of England, in 1542. They behaved in a manner suitable to their dissolute life; and as Lady Rochford was known to be the chief instrument in bringing Ann Boleyn to an untimely end, she died unpitied.

ROCKINGHAM (Marquis of), came into power on the dissolution of the Grenville administration, in 1765, and was appointed first Lord of the Treasury. He was a nobleman possessing but a mediocrity of understanding, and no ways calculated to warrant the expectation of his long continuance in office: he was, however, as his friends say, a

HISTORY.

man of disinterested principles and unaffected patriotism. The chief business of his administration was to undo all that his predecessors had done, particularly repealing the stamp and cider acts. In 1766 he was succeeded in his office by the Duke of Grafton.

ROCROY, a fortified town of France, where Lewis de Bourbon gained a famous victory over the Spaniards, the 19th of May, 1643. Don Francisco de Melo, governor of the Netherlands, promised to himself great success, from the consternation he found in France after the death of Louis XIII. He laid siege to Rocroy, where the duke defeated him, took all his cannon and baggage, and above 60 colours, leaving nearly 7000 killed, and almost as many prisoners. The Count of Fuenta, one of the Spanish generals was killed there, sitting in a chair to give orders for the battle.

RODERIC, the last king of the Visigoths in Spain, who, in conjunction with his brother Cossa, raised a rebellion against the King Vitiza, caused his eyes to be pulled out, and rendered themselves masters of the kingdom in 710. The two sons of Vitiza, accompanied by the Count of Julian, next passed into Africa, and solicited the Moors to fall upon the dominions of Roderic. They succeeded, and the infidels fell with their troops upon Spain, subdued part of it, and in 713 the unfortunate king lost his crown and life in a battle against the infidels, in the 94th of the Hegira, and the 751st of the era of Spain.

RODNEY (George Brydges), a noble admiral, was the son of captain Henry Rodney, a naval officer. He was born in 1717, and received his christian names from George I., and the Duke of Chandos, who were his godfathers. He entered early into the navy, and in 1742 obtained the command of a ship. In 1749 he was appointed Governor of Newfoundland; and on his return, in 1753, married the sister of the Earl of Northampton. In 1759 he was made Admiral of the Blue; and the same year destroyed the stores, prepared at Havre de Grace, for an invasion of England. In 1761 he served on the West India station with such ac-

tivity, that at the conclusion of the war he was made a baronet. In 1768 he was elected into parliament for Northampton; but the contest ruined his estate. In 1771 he went to Jamaica as commander-in-chief; and at the expiration of the term of service, retired to France, where overtures were made to him on the part of that government, which he refused with indignation. In 1779 he was again called into employment; and the year following, by defeating the Spanish fleet, under Langara, off Cape St. Vincent, he saved Gibraltar. After this he went to the West Indies, where, on the 12th of April, 1782, he gained a great victory over Count de Grasse; for which he was made a peer. He died in London, May 24, 1792.

RODOLPHUS, count of Hapsburg was elected Emperor of the West in 1273. In 1277, having humbled some petty adventurers who had presumed to dispute his authority, he marched into Austria against Ottocarus, king of Bohemia, who had recently usurped that duchy, and had behaved with intolerable insolence. After having unsuccessfully requested of a diet convened at Frankfort, that they would create his son and successor Albert, king of the Romans, he retired in disgust to Gemusheim, where he died in the 73d year of his age, and the 18th of his reign.

RODOLPHUS II., first king of Hungary, and afterwards crowned king of the Romans in 1575. The Turks, with whom he had made a truce, carried the war into Hungary; took the strong town of Raah, and raised the siege of Gran. Rodolphus demanded assistance, made a league with Sigismund Bathori, prince of Transilvania, and sent an army into Hungary, which did not arrive there till after the taking of Agria. The Turks were defeated, but they revenged themselves at the same time by cutting off several christians. He died in 1612.

ROE (Sir Thomas), a statesman, was born about 1580, at Low Layton, in Essex, and educated at Magdalen-college, Oxford; after which he became a student of one of the Inns of court. In 1604 he was knighted, and soon after went to make discoveries in America. In 1614 he was

sent on an embassy to the Mogul, at whose court he remained three years. In 1631 he went in the same capacity to Constantinople, and during his residence there, collected a number of manuscripts, which he presented to the Bodleian library. In 1629, Sir Thomas negotiated a peace between Poland and Sweden; and it was by his advice, that Gustavus Adolphus entered Germany, where he gained the battle of Leipsic. In 1640 he was chosen to represent the university of Oxford in parliament. The next year he was sent ambassador to the diet of Ratisbon, and on his return was made Chancellor of the Garter. He died in 1644.

ROHAN, the name of one of the most ancient and most illustrious families in the kingdom of France.

ROHAN (Henry II.), a Protestant; who, having acquired the favour of Louis XIII., he was sent into Switzerland, and among the Grisons, and afterwards made lieutenant-general of his armies in Germany, where he was wounded in 1638, at the first battle of Rhinfield, and some time after died in the abbey of Cunnelfeld, in Switzerland. He was buried in the church of St. Peter, in Geneva, where a magnificent marble tomb was erected with his epitaph in golden letters, containing his most famous actions.

ROME, a city of Italy, the capital of the Roman empire, situate on the banks of the river Tiber, at the distance of about sixteen miles from the sea. The name of its founder, and the manner of its foundation, are not precisely known. Romulus, however, is universally supposed to have laid the foundations of that celebrated city, on the 20th of April, according to Varro, in the year 3961 of the Julian period, 3251 years after the creation of the world, 753 before the birth of Christ, and 431 years after the Trojan war, and in the 4th year of the sixth Olympiad. In its original state, Rome was but a small castle on the summit of Mount Palatine; and the founder, to give his followers the appearance of a nation or a barbarian horde, was obliged to erect a standard as a common asylum, for every criminal, debtor, or murderer, who fled from their native country to avoid the punishment which attended

them. From such an assemblage a numerous body was soon collected, and before the death of the founder, the Romans had covered with their habitations, the Palatine, Capitoline, Aventine, Esquiline hills, with Mount Caelius, and Quirinalis. After many successful wars against the neighbouring states, the views of Romulus were directed to regulate a nation naturally fierce, warlike, and uncivilized. Under the successors of Romulus, the power of Rome was increased, and the boundaries of her dominions extended; while one was employed in regulating the forms of worship, and inculcating in the minds of his subjects a reverence for the Deity, the other was engaged in forcing discipline among the army, and raising the consequence of the soldiers in the government of the state; and a third made the object of his administration consist in adorning his capital, in beautifying its edifices, and in fortifying it with towers and walls. During 244 years the Romans were governed by kings, but the tyranny, the oppression, and the violence of the last of these monarchs, and of his family, became so atrocious, that a revolution was effected in the state, and the democratical government was established. The monarchical government existed under seven princes, who began to reign in the following order: Romulus, B. C. 753; and after one year's interregnum, Numa, 715; Tullus Hostilius, 672; Ancus Martius, 640; Tarquin Prisons, 616; Servius Tullius, 578; and Tarquin the Proud, 534, expelled 25 years after, B. C. 509; and this regal administration has been properly denominated the infancy of the Roman empire. After the expulsion of the Tarquins from the throne, the Romans became more sensible of their consequence: with their liberty they acquired a spirit of faction, and became so jealous of their independence, that the first of their consuls who had been the most zealous and animated in the assertion of their freedom, was banished from the city because he bore the name, and was of the family of the tyrants; and another, to stop their suspicions, was obliged to pull down his house, whose stateliness and magnificence above the rest, seemed incompatible

ENVIRONS OF ROME.



Seele & Son 347 Strand.

ENVIRONS OF ATHENS.

Pub^d Jan^y. 1853, by Sir R.^d Phillips & C^o Bridge St^o Blackfriars.

**THE NEW YORK
PUBLIC LIBRARY**

**ASTOR, LENOX AND
TILDEN FOUNDATIONS.**

HISTORY.

with the duties and the rank of a private citizen. To the same which their conquests and daily successes had gained abroad, the Romans were not a little indebted for their gradual rise to superiority; and to this may be added the policy of the census, which every fifth year told them their actual strength, and how many citizens were able to bear arms. And, indeed, it was no small satisfaction to a people, who were continually making war, to see, that in spite of all the losses which they might sustain in the field, the increase of the inhabitants of the city was prodigious, and almost incredible: and had Romulus lived after the battle of Actium, he would have been persuaded with difficulty of the great number of inhabitants contained within those walls, which, in the most flourishing period of his reign, could scarce muster an army of 5000 infantry and 300 horse. But when Rome had flourished under the consular government for about 120 years, and had beheld with pleasure the conquests of her citizens over the neighbouring states and cities, which, according to a Roman historian, she was ashamed to recollect in the summit of her power, an irruption of the barbarians of Gaul rendered her very existence precarious, and her name was nearly extinguished. The valour of an injured individual, Camillus, saved it from destruction, yet not before its buildings and temples were reduced to ashes. This celebrated event, which gave the appellation of another founder of Rome to Camillus, has been looked upon as a glorious era to the Romans. But no sooner were they freed from the fears of their barbarian invaders, than they turned their arms against those states which refused to acknowledge their superiority, or yield their independence. Their wars with Pyrrhus and the Tarentines, displayed their character in a different view; if they before had fought for freedom and independence, they now drew their sword for glory; and here we may see them conquered in the field, and yet refusing to grant that peace for which their conqueror himself had sued. The advantages they gained from their battles with Pyrrhus were

many. The Roman name became known in Greece, Sicily, and Africa, and in losing or gaining a victory, the Romans were enabled to examine the manœuvres, observe the discipline, and contemplate the order and the encampments of those soldiers whose friends and ancestors had accompanied Alexander the Great in the conquest of Asia. Italy became subjected to the Romans at the end of the war with the Tarentines, and that period of time has been called the second age, or the adolescence of the Roman empire. After this memorable era, they tried their strength not only with distant nations, but also upon a new element; and in the long wars which they waged against Carthage, they were successful, and obtained the sovereignty of the sea: and though Annibal for sixteen years kept them in continual alarms, hovered round their gates, and destroyed their armies almost before their walls, yet they were doomed to conquer, and soon to add the kingdom of Macedonia and the provinces of Asia to their empire. Yet while their conquests were so extensive abroad, we find them torn by factions at home; and so far was the resentment of the poorer citizens carried, that we see the enemy at the gates of the city, while all are unwilling to take up arms and to unite in the defence of their common liberty. The senators and nobles were ambitious of power, and endeavoured to retain in their hands that influence which had been exercised with so much success, and such cruelty, by their monarchs. This was the continual occasion of tumults and sedition. The people were jealous of their liberty. The oppression of the nobles irritated them, and the stripes to which they were too often exposed without mercy, was often productive of revolutions. The plebeians, though originally the poorest and most contemptible citizens of an indigent nation, whose food in the first ages of the empire was only bread and salt, and whose drink was water, soon gained rights and privileges by their opposition. Though really slaves, they became powerful in the state; one concession from the patricians produced another, and when their

Independence was boldly asserted by their tribunes, they were admitted to share in the highest offices of the state, and the laws which forbade the intermarriage of plebeian and patrician families were repealed, and the meanest peasant could by valour and fortitude be raised to the dignity of dictator and consul. It was not till these privileges were obtained by the people from the senate, that Rome began to enjoy internal peace and tranquillity, her battles were then fought with more vigour, her soldiers were more animated, and her sovereignty was more universally established. But supreme power, lodged in the hands of a factious and ambitious citizen, becomes too often dangerous. The greatest oppression and tyranny took place of subordination and obedience; and from those causes proceeded the unparalleled slaughter and effusion of blood under a Sylla and a Marius. It has been justly observed, that the first Romans conquered their enemies by valour, temperance, and fortitude; their moderation also and their justice were well known among their neighbours, and not only private possessions, but even mighty kingdoms and empires, were left in their power, to be distributed among a family, or to be ensured in the hands of a successor. They were also chosen umpires to decide quarrels, but in this honourable office they consulted their own interest; they artfully supported the weaker side, that the more powerful might be reduced, and gradually become their prey. Under J. Cæsar and Pompey, the rage of civil war was carried to unprecedented excess: it was not merely to avenge a private injury, but it was a contest for the sovereignty; and though each of the adversaries wore the mask of pretended sincerity, and professed himself to be the supporter of the republic, no less than the abolition of freedom and the public liberty was the aim. What Julius began, his adopted son achieved: the ancient spirit of national independence was extinguished at Rome; and after the battle of Actium, the Romans seemed unable to govern themselves without the assistance of a chief, who, under the title of imperator, an appellation given to

every commander by his army after some signal victory, reigned with as much power and as much sovereignty as another Tarquin. Under their emperors, the Romans lived a luxurious and indolent life, they had long forgot to appear in the field, and their wars were left to be waged by mercenary troops, who fought without spirit or animosity, and who were ever ready to yield to him who bought their allegiance and fidelity with the greatest sums of money. Their leaders themselves were not the most prudent or the most humane; the power which they had acquired by bribery was indeed precarious, and among a people, where not only the highest offices of the state, but even the imperial purple itself are exposed to sale, there cannot be expected much happiness or tranquillity in the palace of the emperor. The reigns of the successors of Augustus were distinguished by variety; one was the most abandoned and profligate of men, whom his own vices and extravagance hurried out of the world, while his successor, perhaps the most clement, just, and popular of princes, was sacrificed in the midst of his guards and attendants, by the dagger of some offended favourite or disappointed eunuch. Few indeed were the emperors of Rome whose days were not shortened by poison, or the sword of an assassin. If one for some time had the imprudence to trust himself in the midst of a multitude, at last to perish by his own credulity, the other consulted his safety, but with no better success, in the innumerable chambers of his palace, and changed every day, to elude discovery, the place of his retirement. After they had been governed by a race of princes, remarkable for the variety of their characters, the Roman possessions were divided into two distinct empires, by the enterprising Constantine, A.D. 328. Constantinople became the seat of the eastern empire, and Rome remained in the possession of the western emperors, and continued to be the capital of their dominions. In the year 800 of the Christian era, Rome with Italy was delivered by Charlemagne, the then emperor of the west, into the hands of the pope, who still con-

HISTORY.

times to hold the sovereignty, and to maintain his independence under the name of the Ecclesiastical States. The original poverty of the Romans has often been disguised by their poets and historians, who wished it to appear that a nation who were masters of the world, had had better beginning than to be a race of shepherds and robbers. Yet it was to this simplicity they were indebted for their successes. Their houses were originally destitute of every ornament, they were made with unequal boards, and covered with mud, and these served them rather as a shelter against the inclemency of the seasons than for relaxation and ease. Till the age of Pyrrhus, they despised riches, and many salutary laws were enacted to restrain luxury and to punish indolence. They observed great temperance in their meals; young men were not permitted to drink wine till they had attained their 30th year, and it was totally forbidden to women. Their national spirit was supported by policy; the triumphal procession of a conqueror along the streets amidst the applause of thousands, was well calculated to promote emulation; and the number of gladiators who were regularly introduced, not only in public games and spectacles, but also at private meetings, served to cherish their fondness for war, whilst it steeled their hearts against the calls of compassion; and when they could gaze with pleasure upon wretches whom they forcibly obliged to murder one another, they were not inactive in the destruction of those whom they considered as inveterate foes or formidable rivals in the field. In their punishments, civil as well as military, the Romans were strict and rigorous; a deserter was severely whipped and sold as a slave, and the degradation from the rank of a soldier and dignity of a citizen was the most ignominious stigma which could be affixed upon a seditious mutineer. The transmarine victories of the Romans proved at last the ruin of their innocence and bravery. They grew fond of the luxury of the Asiatics: and conquered by the vices and indolence of those nations whom they had subdued, they became as effeminate and as dissolute as their captives. Marcellus was the first who in-

troduced a taste for the fine arts among his countrymen. The spoils and treasures that were obtained in the plunder of Syracuse and Corinth, rendered the Romans partial to elegant refinement and ornamental equipage. Though Cato had despised philosophy, and declared that war was the only profession of his countrymen, the Romans, by their intercourse with the Greeks, soon became fond of literature; and though they had once banished the sophists of Athens from their city, yet they beheld with rapture their settlement among them in the principal towns of Italy, after the conquest of Achaia. They soon after began to imitate their polished captives, and to cultivate poetry with success. From the valour of their heroes and conquerors, indeed, the sublimest subjects were offered to the genius of their poets; but of the little that remains to celebrate the early victories of Rome; nothing can be compared to the nobler effusions of the Augustan age.—There were no less than 420 temples at Rome, crowded with statues; the priests were numerous, and each divinity had a particular college of sacerdotal servants. Their wars were declared in the most awful and solemn manner, and prayers were always offered in the temples for the prosperity of Rome; when a defeat had been sustained, or a victory won. The power of fathers over their children was very extensive, and indeed unlimited; they could sell them or put them to death at pleasure, without the forms of a trial, or the interference of the civil magistrate. Many of their ancient families were celebrated for the great men whom they had produced; but the vigorous and interested part they took in the government of the republic exposed them often to danger; and some have observed that the Romans sunk into indolence and luxury when the Cornelli, the Fabii, the Æmylii, the Marcelli, &c., who had so often supported their spirit and led them to victory, had been extinguished in the bloody wars of Marius and of the two triumvirates. When Rome was become powerful, she was distinguished from other cities by the flattery of her neighbours and citi-

ROM

sens; a form of worship was established to her as a deity, and temples were raised in her honour, not only in the city but in the provinces.

ROMAN EMPERORS, from Julius Cæsar to Jovian, distinguishing the length of their reign and its commencement.

	R.	B.C.
Julius Cæsar	16	— 46
Augustus	43	— 30
		A.D.
Tiberius	22	— 14
Caligula	4	— 36
Claudius	14	— 40
Nero	14	— 54
Galba, Otho and Vitellius	14	— 69
Vespasian	10	— 69
Titus	3	— 78
Domitian	15	— 81
Nerva	1	— 96
Trajan	19	— 97
Adrian	21	— 116
Antoninus Pius	23	— 137
Aurelius	19	— 161
Commodus	13	— 180
Pertinax	1	— 193
Severus	17	— 194
Caracalla	7	— 211
Heliogabalus	4	— 218
Alexander	13	— 222
Maximinus	3	— 235
Gordian, jun.	6	— 238
Philip	5	— 244
Decius	2	— 249
Gallus	6	— 251
Gallienus	14	— 254
Claudius	2	— 268
Aurelian	5	— 270
Tacitus	1	— 273
Probus	6	— 276
Numerian	2	— 282
Dioclesian	20	— 284
Constantine Chlorus	3	— 304
Constantine the Great	30	— 307
Constantius II.	24	— 337
Julian	2	— 361
Jovian	1	— 363

Valentinian succeeded in 364, when the empire was divided into the eastern and western branches, of which the latter terminated in 476, and the former in 1453, when Constantinople was taken by the Turks.

ROMILLY (Sir Samuel), an eminent lawyer, was born March 1, 1757. In 1783 he was called to the bar. At length he rose to distinction in the Court of Chancery; and, in the last administration of Mr. Fox, was made solicitor-general. When

the party to whom he was attached went out of office, he also retired. He exerted himself in endeavouring to effect a revision of the criminal code, with a view to the limitation of capital punishments to a few heinous offences; on which subject he published an able pamphlet; as he also did another against the erection of the office of vice-chancellor. The death of this eminent man was most melancholy. Shocked at the loss of his lady, who died in the Isle of Wight, he became delirious, and destroyed himself, November 2, 1818.

ROMORANTAIN, where in 1366, the year of the famous battle of Poitiers, a party of French, who had attempted to cut off the advanced guard of the Black Prince, shutting themselves up in the castle, were obliged to surrender at discretion.

ROMULUS, founder of Rome, was born at the same birth with Remus; but of what parents it is impossible to say, as the account of their origin is involved in much fable and mystery. They undertook to build a city, hopeful that it would become a warlike and powerful nation. Romulus marked with a furrow the place where he wished to erect the walls; but their slenderness was ridiculed by Remus, who leaped over them with the greatest contempt. This irritated Romulus, and Remus was immediately put to death, either by the hand of his brother or one of the workmen. When the walls were built, the city was without inhabitants; but Romulus, by making an asylum of a sacred grove, soon collected a number of fugitives, foreigners, and criminals, whom he received as his lawful subjects. Yet however numerous these might be, they were despised by the neighbouring inhabitants, and none were willing to form matrimonial connexions with them. But Romulus obtained by force what was denied to his petitions. The Romans celebrated games in honour of the god Consus, and forcibly carried away all the females who had assembled there to be spectators of these unusual exhibitions. These violent measures offended the neighbouring nations; they made war against the ravishers

HISTORY.

with various success, till at last they entered Rome, which had been betrayed to them by one of the stolen virgins. A violent engagement was begun in the middle of the Roman forum; but the Sabines were conquered, or, according to Ovid, the two enemies laid down their arms when the women had rushed between the two armies, and by their tears and entreaties raised compassion in the bosoms of their parents and husbands. The Sabines left their original possessions and came to live in Rome, where Tatius, their king, shared the sovereign power with Romulus. The introduction of the Sabines into the city of Rome was attended with the most salutary consequences, and the Romans, by pursuing this plan, and admitting the conquered nations among their citizens, rendered themselves more powerful and more formidable. Afterwards Romulus divided the lands which he had obtained by conquest; one part was reserved for religious uses, to maintain the priests, to erect temples, and to consecrate altars; the other was appropriated for the expenses of the state; and the third part was equally distributed among his subjects, who were divided into three classes or tribes. The most aged and experienced, to the number of 100, were also chosen, whom the monarch might consult in matters of the highest importance, and from their age they were called *senators*, and from their authority *patres*. The whole body of the people were also distinguished by the name of patricians and plebeians, patron and client, who by mutual interest were induced to preserve the peace of the state, and to promote the public good. Some time after, Romulus disappeared as he was giving instructions to the senators, and the eclipse of the sun, which happened at that time, was favourable to the rumour which asserted that the king had been taken up to heaven, 714 B. C. after a reign of 39 years.

RONCESVALLES, a valley in Spain, where the army of Charlemagne, on their return from an expedition to that country, were attacked in the narrow passes of the mountains, and all that were separated from the main body were killed,

among whom were several chiefs of note.

ROOKE (Sir George), a gallant admiral, was born in Kent in 1680. He entered early into the naval service, and had the command of several expeditions in the reigns of King William and Queen Anne; all of which he conducted with equal skill and courage. In 1702 he attacked the French fleet in the harbour of Vigo, and took several galleons and men-of-war, besides destroying a number of others. In 1704 he made himself master of Gibraltar; notwithstanding which, such was the violence of party, Sir George was soon afterwards superseded by the Whigs, who endeavoured to lessen his services by representing them as the effects of mere chance and good fortune. He died January 24, 1709-10. When he made his will, some of his friends wondered at the slenderness of his circumstances, considering what employments he had been engaged in; to whom the dying hero said, "I do not leave much, 'tis true; but what I do leave was honestly gotten; it never cost a seaman a tear, nor the nation a farthing."

ROSBACH, in Prussian Saxony, remarkable for the victory obtained there over the French by the Prussians, under Frederic II., in 1767.

ROSE (George), a statesman, was the son of an episcopal clergyman at Brechin, in the shire of Angus, and born there, June 11, 1744. He was brought up under an uncle, who kept a school near London, after which he went into the navy, and became a purser; but, by the interest of the Earl of Marchmont, he was taken from thence, and made keeper of the records in the Exchequer. Here his talents for business were soon discovered, and he was appointed to superintend the publication of the Domesday Book; after which he was employed to complete the journals of the Lords, in thirty-one volumes, folio. From this period his advancement was rapid, and his services were duly appreciated and engaged, by almost every administration. Mr. Pitt, in particular, placed unbounded confidence in his judgment on subjects of trade and finance; and, when Pitt returned to power, after the short peace, Mr.

Rose was made president of the board of trade, and treasurer of the navy. On the death of Mr. Pitt, another change occurred; but, when the administration formed by Lord Grenville retired, Mr. Rose resumed his former station, and continued in it till his death, which happened at Cuffnells, his seat in Hampshire, January 13, 1818.

ROS LIN, a village in Scotland, celebrated for its ancient castle, both of which were burnt by the English. In 1302 the English were thrice repulsed by the Scots in one day, near this town.

ROSS (NEW), a seaport town of Ireland, where a bloody battle was fought June 5, 1798, when General Johnson defeated the rebels with the loss of 3,000 men.

ROTHILCUND, an extensive district of Hindostan, formerly occupied by a tribe of Afghans. The founders of this dynasty were Shah Aalam and Hussein Khan, who settled in Kuttaher in 1673. The whole district was ceded to the British in 1801, and is now governed by a civil establishment of officers.

ROUEN, a town of Normandy, of note in the time of William the Conqueror, besieged by Henry V. in 1418, who took it after five months. It fell into the power of the French in 1449.

ROUNDWAY DOWN (Battle of), was fought near Devizes, between the royalists and parliamentarians in 1643; in which the latter were entirely defeated.

ROXBURGH, in Scotland, taken by Edward in 1296, and recovered by the Scots in 1313. In 1334 it was ceded to Edward by Baliol; taken by Alexander Ramsay in 1342, and re-taken by the English after the battle of Hexham.

ROXELLANA, a sultanness, the wife of Solymán the Magnificent, emperor of the Turks, whom ambition tempted to commit the most notorious violences. Solymán had a son called Mustapha; but she was the mother of Selim II., Bajazet, and two other sons, and of Camena, the wife of Rustan the grand vizier. Roxellana being anxious to advance her children to the throne, pretended she had an ardent desire to build a mosque and an hospital for strangers.

Solymán consented to it, and she afterwards consulted the mufti, who agreed that her design was holy, but that these good works could not conduce to the salvation of the soul of Roxellana, because being a slave she had no estate of her own. The cunning sultanness next affected an extraordinary melancholy, when Solymán made her free. Roxellana becoming the wife of Solymán, destroyed Mustapha in 1553. After that Bajazet, her second son, revolted, and she re-established him in his father's favour. She died in 1561.

RUBICON, a river of Italy, celebrated as the limit prescribed by the Roman senate to the advancing army of Cæsar, when his designs were suspected.

RUFINUS, raised by the emperor Theodosius the Great from a mean condition to the highest honour in the empire, and at his death left guardian of his son Arcadius. Rufinus, being ambitious, resolved to place himself upon the throne, for which purpose he called the Goths and other barbarians into the empire, that during that desolation he might have an opportunity to seize upon it, or divide it between them and himself. In the mean time the Goths entered into the empire, and came to besiege Constantinople. He gave orders that the eastern army should advance near the city, and in the mean time disposed of all things in order to be declared emperor, when he should go visit the camp with Arcadius. His design being discovered, he was killed in the midst of the army in 395, whither he had brought the emperor in order to have him murdered, and to ensure the empire to himself by his death. His body was cut to pieces, and his head carried upon a lance, and showed to the people, who hated him for his avarice and cruelty.

RUGEN, an island of the Baltic Sea, upon the coast of Pomerania. Ericus king of Denmark gave it in 1438 to the Duke of Pomerania; but, having been since taken by the Swedes, it has been confirmed to them by the peace of Munster, in 1648.

RUNNYMEDE, a spot between Windsor and Staines, will ever be celebrated in history as the place of conference between John and his

HISTORY.

martial barons. After a debate of some days, the king, with a facility somewhat suspicious, signed and sealed the famous deed called **MAGNA CHARTA**, or the **GREAT CHARTER**, which granted or secured very important liberties to the clergy, the barons, and the people. Its chief provisions were in favour of the nobility and the clergy; but to render the cause of the barons more popular, some salutary regulations were introduced for the protection of the lower classes.

RUPERT (Prince), the third son of Frederic, king of Bohemia, by Elizabeth, daughter of James I. He was born in 1619, and received an education adapted to the military service. In the civil wars of England, while his elder brother became a pensioner to the parliament, prince Rupert adhered steadfastly to his royal uncle, and defeated the rebels in several engagements; for which the king honoured him with the garter, and made him a peer. The prince, however, was more successful as a naval commander than on the land, particularly after the restoration, in the great Dutch war, on the conclusion of which he led a retired life, occupied wholly in scientific pursuits. He died in London in 1682, and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

RUSSEL (William, first duke of Bedford), was the eldest son of Francis, the fourth earl of Bedford, and born in 1614. He received his education at Magdalen-college, Oxford, and at the coronation of Charles I., was created knight of the bath. In the beginning of the civil war, he acted against the king, and commanded the reserve of horse in the battle of Edgehill; but in 1645, he joined the royal standard, and fought with great bravery at the battle of Newbury. His estate, in consequence, was put under sequestration, but on his submission to the parliament it was restored. He then led a private life till the return of Charles II., when he assisted at the coronation, and was made a knight of the garter. He also attended the coronation of William and Mary, and in 1694, was created Duke of Bedford. He died in 1706.

RUSSEL (William, lord), third

son of the preceding, was born about 1641. He received a private education under puritanical teachers. His early life, however, appears to have been rather dissipated, till he married, in 1667, the excellent daughter of Lord Southampton. On becoming a member of the House of Commons, he distinguished himself by his zeal for the exclusion of the Duke of York; and at length became so far involved in a conspiracy for effecting a revolution, that, when the Rye-house plot was discovered, an indictment was preferred against him, and he was condemned at the Old Bailey. Great exertions were made to save his life, but all without effect, and he was beheaded in Lincoln's-Inn-fields, July 19, 1683. After the revolution an act was passed, to annul and make void the proceedings against Lord Russel. His widow, lady Rachel, died Sept. 29, 1723, at the age of 87.

RUSSIA. This extensive empire now comprehends a larger territory than any other in the world, in Europe, Asia, and America; and in the reign of the present emperor, Alexander, has extended its dominion over Finland, part of Poland, and Circassia, Georgia, and other districts in Asia, and is likely to make further progress. In the ninth century, the Scandinavians, who were Danes, Normans, or Norwegians, and Swedes, emigrated from the north, and, crossing the Baltic, settled in this country. These intruders were called Waregers, from which the name of Russes or Russians is derived. After subduing Courland, Livonia, and Esthonia, the Waregers were offered the government of the whole country, and, embracing the proposal, deputed to the office three brothers of known abilities and valour, whose names were Ruric, Sineus, and Truwor. They reigned very amicably together, and made considerable additions to their respective territories, all of which at length devolved on Ruric, by the death of Sineus and Truwor, who left no issue.—Ruric left his dominions in 878, to his son Igor, a minor, under the care of a relation named Olech, who governed with great ability and integrity during the

reign of the young prince, and who

undertook an expedition against Constantinople, which he besieged for some time, and at length compelled the emperor to purchase peace at a stipulated price. On the death of Oleg, Igor undertook an unsuccessful expedition against Constantinople, and afterwards ravaged and desolated the country of the Drevlians, by whom he was slain. Sviatoslaw, the son of Igor, was a great warrior, and enlarged his dominions by the acquisition of much territory, but was basely murdered by the prince of the Petchenegans.—Włodimir I. succeeded in 976, and imprudently divided his dominions among his 12 sons, who became enemies to each other, and, after his death, replunged their country into all the horrors of murder, massacres, and civil war.—In 1019, Jaroslaw, who had been appointed to the government of Novogorod, assembled his forces, and attacking his brothers, dispossessed them of their dominions, which he usurped. He also divided his territories among his five sons, who, being equally ambitious, and able to injure each other, renewed all the horrors of civil war, in 1106. At length, Włodimir II., being more fortunate and more enterprising than the rest, possessed himself of the greatest part of these territories, and was declared universal monarch. He transferred his power to his son Waswold II., who plunged the state into fresh disorder, by dividing his dominions among his sons. These dissensions afforded the Tartars an opportunity of making incursions into Russia, which they plundered and desolated, and which was also attacked by the Poles, in 1237. To complete the misery of the Russians, the Tartars returned, and, attacking them with irresistible fury, made an entire conquest of their country.—During several reigns which occupy a space of more than 200 years, the miseries of a foreign yoke were aggravated by the calamities of intestine discord and civil war. At length, in 1450, John Basilowitz I., by his invincible spirit, and refined policy, became the conqueror and deliverer of his country, and laid the foundation of that grandeur which has since distinguished Russia. Taking advantage of a war

in which the Tartars were engaged and having in the mean time considerably increased his forces, he disclaimed all subjection to that people, attacked their dominions, and made himself master of Casan, where he was crowned. He was honoured with the surname of Great, and assumed the title of Czar, which signifies Emperor, but which was more used by his successors.—On the death of John Basilowitz in 1505, the crown ought to have devolved to his eldest son Demetrius, whom he had by a former wife; but his widow Sophia, by various artful insinuations, obtained it for her own son Gabriel, who, disliking his own name, assumed that of Basilus Twasowitz. He engaged in a war with the Poles and Crim-Tartars, who, penetrating to the gates of Moscow, made the czar tremble on his throne, and obliged him to submit to their conditions. The Tartars entered Russia a second time, ravaged the country, and, making themselves masters of Moscow, compelled Basilus to acknowledge himself their vassal, and to promise to pay them an annual tribute. John Basilowitz II., succeeded in 1533, and was one of the greatest monarchs of Russia. He was constantly engaged in war with the Tartars, the Poles, the Swedes, the Dapes, or the Turks, and was almost always successful. He left two sons; Theodore Ivanowitz, who succeeded him, and Demetrius, an infant, placed under the tutelage of the knez Bogdan Bielski. This guardian formed the design of placing his pupil on the throne, in prejudice to his elder brother Theodore, whose simplicity and want of talents rendered him incapable of supporting the weight of a diadem. But though the nobles delivered Theodore from the enterprises of Bielski, that weak monarch suffered all the authority to centre in the hands of the knez Boris Godenow, whose sister he had married, and who, after ordering Demetrius to be put to death, administered to Theodore a slow poison. Finding his dissolution approaching, Theodore offered the sceptre to some of his nearest relations: but as they all refused it, he threw it on the floor, saying, "Let him be the emperor who picks

HISTORY.

it up.² Boris Godunow then stepped forward, and took it, to the great dissatisfaction of the nation. In Theodore ended the family of Ruric, which had governed Russia upwards of 700 years. His reign was disturbed, and terminated by the re-appearance of the real or pretended Demetrius. Thinking it impossible to oppose an effectual resistance to Demetrius, Boris, in a moment of despair, took poison, of which he died. Theodore was only 15 years of age at the time of his father's death, and ascended the throne in 1605. After making his public entry into Moscow, Demetrius was crowned sovereign of all the Russians. Notwithstanding these successes, a party was formed against him. The conspirators declared that Demetrius was an impostor, whose design was to extirpate the nobility, to overturn the religion of Russia, and render the people slaves to Poland. An insurgent multitude attacked the palace; and Demetrius, finding himself surrounded, leaped from a window, broke his thigh in the fall, was taken, and put to death. Immediately after the murder of Demetrius, Zuzki, the leader of the conspirators, was elected sovereign by the suffrages of the people, though the nobles and senators were divided in opinion between him and John Galitzin. Two noblemen, discontented with the government of their country, declared that Demetrius still existed; and, raising an army, they combated and defeated Zuzki, but were in their turn defeated, made prisoners, and put to death. To this shade succeeded a real being, who has been called a third Demetrius, and who was a schoolmaster at Socola, a small town in Polish Russia. For some time the Poles gave every assistance in their power to this pretender, and changing sides, they aided the czar in expelling the schoolmaster, who fled into Tartary, where he was afterwards assassinated. Zuzki was afterwards deposed, shaven, and immured in a convent, where he died. In 1610 the crown was offered to Vladislav, son of the King of Poland, who sent before him an army of Poles, that committed every species of devastation. At length the delays of Vladislav; the

insolence and wantonness of the Poles, and the impatience of the Russians, who saw no end of their sufferings, excited the people to discontent and insurrection. As the election of Vladislav was rendered of no effect by his never appearing to accept the crown; the Russians proceeded to the choice of a new sovereign, and elected Michael Theodorowits Romanow, son of Philaretus. This great and pacific prince died in the 49th year of his age, and the 33d of his reign, and bequeathed the crown to his son, then in his 16th year. Alexis Theodorowits succeeded to the throne in 1645, and appointed as his first minister and counsellor Boris Morosau, a man till then held in estimation and respect, and possessed of great abilities, but unfortunately tainted with the spirit of ambition. Open traffic was made of justice; offices and employments were publicly sold. These exactions and oppressions excited the resentment of the inhabitants of Moscow, who, finding their petitions disregarded, and no grievances redressed, proceeded to the utmost excesses. This act of popular vengeance instructed the czar to beware of reposing unlimited confidence in his ministers, and to guide the helm of the empire with his own hand. He employed his subsequent life in rectifying and repairing, by a mild and equitable administration, the faults and errors into which he had been led in his youth, by his too great confidence in favourites and ministers. He died in the 46th year of his age. By his first wife, Alexis left two sons, Theodore and John, and a daughter called Sophia; and by a second, Peter, and the Princess Natalia. Theodore succeeded to the throne in 1676, at the age of 19 years, and possessed all the good qualities of his father, whose example he imitated in attempting to polish Russia, and to introduce into that country useful establishments. Theodore having appointed Peter his successor in the throne, to the exclusion of his elder brother, John, the intrigues of the Princess Sophia, her sister, occasioned a dreadful rebellion, which was at length terminated with proclaiming the two princes, John and Peter, joint sovereigns, and associates.

ing Sophia in the government as co-regent in 1682. The imbecility of the elder brother, and the youth of Peter, allowed Sophia to enjoy all the honours of sovereignty. She married John to a young lady of the house of Solitkoff, and formed a design against the life of Peter, who, being informed of her intention, made his escape, raised troops, and caused Sophia to be imprisoned and deprived of all authority. From 1690 Peter is to be considered as sole sovereign of Russia; since from the period of this revolution to the year 1696, in which John died, the latter led a private and retired life. Peter the Great died 1725, at the age of fifty-three years, and was succeeded in the throne by his widow, Catharine.—She left the throne to Peter II., grandson of the late czar, in 1727, whose father Peter the Great had inhumanly condemned to suffer death. This prince was extremely beloved by his people; and Russia has since termed his reign its happiest period during a hundred years.—On the death of Peter II. in 1730, the council, the senate, the general officers, and other persons of distinction, assembled, and elected to the throne Anne Iwanowna, duchess of Courland, and second daughter of John, Peter's eldest brother. Anne successfully executed many projects intended by Peter the Great, and died at Petersburg, after a glorious and happy reign of ten years, A.D. 1740.—Previous to her death, the late empress had declared her niece, Anne of Mecklenburg, grand duchess, and her niece's son, Iwan, emperor of Russia, though he was a very remote descendant of the house of Romanow, and seemed rather of German than Russian extraction. However, there appeared another aspirant to the throne, who was Princess Elizabeth, daughter of Peter the Great, and aunt to the grand duchess Anne, and who finally succeeded in the attempt. Iwan, the innocent and unconscious boy, who, with no ambition to rule, had been raised to the imperial purple, was dethroned without consternation, and immured in a dungeon; and the grand duchess and her husband were imprisoned in a fortress, where they died.—Elizabeth, having thus

obtained possession of the throne of Russia in 1740, bent all her thoughts to the government of the empire. However, her reign was tarnished by the institution of a political court of inquisition, under the name of a secret state chancery, empowered to examine into and punish all expressions of displeasure with the measures of government.—On the death of Elizabeth, Charles Peter Ulrich, only son of the Duke of Holstein, peaceably ascended the throne of Russia in 1762, as the declared successor of the late empress, and assumed the title of Peter III. He was grandson to Peter the Great and Catharine I., whose eldest daughter, the Princess Anne, had married his father, Charles Frederic.—Peter had for a long time slighted his consort Catharine, of the house of Anhalt Zeabst, and now openly lived with the Countess of Worontzoff, niece to the chancellor of that name. Catharine indulged in the greatest licentiousness; and, after the dismissal of Poniatowski, the Polish ambassador, with whom she had been too intimate, she carried on a criminal intercourse with Gregory Orloff, who became an active and a zealous member of a conspiracy against the czar. To the conspiracy of Bestchew, supported by his nephew, the Prince of Wolskowsky, and by Count Panin, was added another, of which the Princess Dashkoff, a girl only eighteen years of age, was the most active and spirited member. Of these factions, which acted in unison, but without the cognizance of each other, Catharine was the animating spirit.—At length a report was propagated, that the emperor entertained the design of declaring Prince Iwan his successor; of disowning the young grand duke, Paul Petrowitz, as his son; and of immuring Catharine for life in a prison, and substituting in her place his mistress, the Countess of Worontzoff.—At seven in the morning of the 9th of July, 1762, Catharine entered the city of Petersburg in the absence of the czar; and having induced the soldiers to believe that her death, together with that of her son, had been decreed by the emperor that night, the troops took the oath of allegiance to her. She then repaired to the church of

Casan, where the archbishop of Novogorod placed on her head the imperial crown, and in a loud voice proclaimed her sovereign of all the Russias, under the name of Catharine II.—The new empress now marched at the head of the troops against her husband, who was solacing himself with his mistress at one of his houses of pleasure, when he was informed of the event which had taken place at Petersburg. Consternation immediately pervaded his whole company. The emperor, perplexed and confounded, ordered, countermanded, asked advice, adopted, and again rejected it, and at length set out with his mistress and *aid-de-camp* to meet Catharine at the castle of Peterhoff, vainly hoping to move, by submission, the heart of a woman who was utterly devoid of pity or compassion. The unfortunate Peter, after being induced to write and sign a renunciation of the throne of Russia, was cast into prison, where a few days after he was murdered.—On the death of Augustus III., king of Poland, in 1764, Catharine, who had signed a treaty of alliance with Prussia, raised to the throne of that kingdom Stanislaus Poniatowski, her former paramour, notwithstanding the murmurs and resistance of the Polish nation. During the absence of the empress at Riga, a conspiracy, real or pretended, was formed in favour of Prince Iwan, who was barbarously put to death. The purposes for which Poniatowski had been raised to the throne of Poland, began gradually to develop themselves; and having traced on a map a line of demarcation, by which a great part of the Polish territory had been assigned to Russia, Catharine insisted on the recognition of these limits, and the propriety of her claim. The Poles having induced the Ottoman Porte to take up arms in their behalf, hostilities commenced between Turkey and Russia, and the empress resolved to rend the Grecian islands from the Ottoman Porte, and to be the patroness of liberty in Greece, and the foundress of a new republic. At length the dismemberment of Poland was effected by Russia, Austria, and Prussia; and Turkey was obliged to conclude a

peace on very disadvantageous terms.—The ambition of Catharine again excited the jealousy and the fears of the Turkish empire by the designs which she entertained respecting her grandson, whose name and education sufficiently denoted her intention. War was, therefore, again declared by the Porte against Russia, whose minister was shut up in the castle of the Seven Towers. Joseph II., emperor of Germany, sent 80,000 Austrians to the assistance of Catharine; and every thing seemed to announce the ruin of the Ottoman power. Surrounding nations, however, beheld with jealousy the designs of the empress, who threatened to destroy the equilibrium of Europe, but who, notwithstanding her victories and her conquests, at length perceived that a cessation of hostilities was very desirable. Accordingly, after some time, peace was concluded between Russia and the Porte, and a bloody and an expensive war terminated. The arms of Russia and Prussia were now united in partitioning the remainder of Poland; and Frederic William, at the head of his forces, fought against Kosciusko, whose talents, courage, and despair, were unavailing against multiplied and increasing numbers. After a few bloody victories, the courts of Petersburg and Berlin succeeded in dividing the remains of that unhappy country; and the courtiers of Catharine shared among them the possessions of the proscribed.—Catharine died after a long and prosperous reign, and at a time when she hoped to drive the Turks out of Europe, and to seize on the throne of Constantinople.—On the death of Catharine II., in 1796, Paul Petrowitz, her son, who was at that time 43 years of age, was proclaimed emperor of Russia. The first acts of the new Caesar, were extremely popular; and his actions seemed to contradict the report of his stern and capricious disposition. However, Paul's conduct in the first days of his reign, was soon afterwards reversed.—Paul concluded with the King of Great Britain a treaty, by which they agreed to oppose, in the most efficacious manner, the successes of the French arms in extending the principles of

anarchy, to promote solid and lasting peace, and to endeavour to re-establish the balance of power in Europe. For some time the Russians and their allies were fortunate; but their successes being afterwards converted into mournful defeats, the emperor broke off the alliance which had been concluded with the court of London. Indignant that the British government would not acquiesce in his having appointed himself grand-master of Malta, Paul entered into an alliance with France, and excited a formidable confederacy of the maritime powers of the north against the naval interests of Great Britain, which was broken by the glorious battle of Copenhagen. His capricious and extravagant actions, some of which bordered on frenzy, gave great offence to many of the principal nobles; and he was murdered in the night of the 23d of March, 1801, though his death has been ascribed to an apoplectic fit.—The day after his decease, his eldest son, Alexander Panlowitz, who was in the 24th year of his age, was proclaimed emperor of all the Russias, and issued several popular ukases, in one of which he revived and confirmed all the regulations of the Empress Catharine for the encouragement of industry and commerce.—Bonaparte not fulfilling the secret convention which had been entered into between France and Russia, with respect to the evacuation of the kingdom of Naples by the French troops, the adjusting of the affairs of Italy, and the indemnity promised to be granted to the king of Sardinia, Alexander ordered an additional levy of land forces throughout his dominions. He afterwards attempted to negotiate a general peace among the powers of Europe; but finding this impracticable, on account of the disposition and views of Bonaparte, he joined Austria and England in the coalition against France. Unfortunately, however, the Russian troops could not join the Austrians till the latter had suffered several severe defeats. The battle of Austerlitz terminated unfavourably to the allies; and the Emperor of Germany concluding a separate peace with France immediately after that event, the Russian troops returned into their

own country. When war broke out between France and Prussia, the Emperor Alexander ordered his forces to the assistance of the latter power. However, before they could arrive to aid their allies, the French had over-run Prussia, and penetrated into Poland, where they were defeated by the Russians; but Bonaparte, having compelled his vassal princes to furnish their stipulated contingents of troops, again advanced, and gained the battle of Friedland, which obliged the Emperor Alexander to sign the treaty of Tilsit.—That treaty was soon after followed by a declaration of war, on the part of Russia, against Great Britain; and one immense power now occupied Europe, arranging and controlling every thing in conformity to its views. Russia, which had become the willing instrument of French policy, not only withdrew from her alliance with Sweden, but attacked that country. In 1808, an army of 40,000 men was sent into Finland, from which the Swedes were finally expelled.—By the treaty of Tilsit, Russia bound herself to accede to the continental system, and to exclude from her ports all British manufactures and colonial produce. Not aware of the consequences of his engagements, the Emperor Alexander had placed himself in a situation of great difficulty. If he attempted to fulfil the treaty by interdicting the trade between Great Britain and the Russian empire, he deprived his subjects of the best market for their produce, and roused his nobility against him. On the other hand, his apprehensions of the power of Bonaparte were strong and well founded. He, therefore, determined on a species of compromise, and forbade the introduction of all British produce and manufactures into his dominions, except by special license, and in neutral ships.—Soon after the differences commenced between Napoleon and the Emperor Alexander, the former took such measures as he thought would either awe the latter into submission, or secure victory and success in case of hostilities: he assembled large bodies in the north of Germany; he kept possession of a great part of Prussia especially of the places most

HISTORY.

unconveniently situated for an attack on Russian Poland; and he forcibly occupied Swedish Pomerania. Preparations were made by Russia to meet the approaching crisis; and before the commencement of hostilities, the force that could be brought against the French amounted to nearly 300,000 men, exclusively of the militia. On the other hand, the emperor Francis engaged to furnish 30,000 men to France in her war with Russia; the troops of the confederation of the Rhine had been raised to their stipulated quota; and the kings of Saxony and Naples had been induced to embark with Napoleon in this great enterprise. The armies of Bonaparte on the frontiers of Russian Poland amounted to at least 300,000 infantry, and 60,000 cavalry, in a state of the highest discipline and equipment, and commanded by the first military talents of the age.—The preparations on each side corresponded with the magnitude of the interests embarked in the contest. In numbers the combatants were not, at first, on an equality; and in discipline, in science, and in organization, the French possessed a great superiority.—On the 9th of May, 1812, Napoleon left Paris: and arriving on the banks of the Niemen on the 22d of June, he issued to his soldiers a proclamation in his usual confident and laconic style. This was his only declaration of war. The French and their allies passed the Niemen without opposition, and obtained possession of Wilna, the capital of Lithuania. The re-establishment of the kingdom of Poland was now proclaimed, and a diet assembled under the guarantee of the French emperor; and, by these means, the national enthusiasm was raised in his favour, and the ranks of his army were swelled by Polish levies.—The Emperor of Austria recalled his ambassador from Petersburg, and furnished his contingent of troops to the French. Russia, however, acquired a new and zealous, though remote ally in England, who formed a treaty of friendship and reciprocal defence with her, and a similar one with Sweden. In proportion as the French advanced into the territories of Russia, the more resistance they experienced; and several bloody en-

gagements took place, without producing any decisive effect. The first great stand was made at the city of Smolensko, which is in the direct road to Moscow, and for the defence of which the Russians were posted. However, in the middle of the night, after a severe engagement, a dreadful conflagration was observed in the city; and the Russians abandoned Smolensko, and retired across the Dnieper. Moscow was now the great object to be contended for; and the Russian main army took a strong position to cover it from the attack of Napoleon. A dreadful engagement ensued; and the result of this battle, which was named by the Russians the Battle of Borodino, was a victory claimed by each party. However, the French entered Moscow seven days after this engagement; but in order to deprive the French of a place for their winter quarters, the governor had ordered the city to be set on fire; and the French troops had scarcely entered the Kremlin, when Moscow appeared in flames in different parts. The conflagration was so extensive, and raged with such fury for several days, that not more than a tenth of the buildings remained unconsumed. The French began their retreat from Moscow, but were closely pursued by an exasperated foe. To add to their calamities a Russian winter set in with deep snow. The sufferings of the French were extreme, and their losses prodigious. Horses died in such numbers, that the greatest part of the artillery was left behind, and the cavalry was nearly dismounted: whole bodies of men, disabled by cold and hunger, surrendered without resistance to the pursuers; and nothing appeared but disaster and dismay. It is probable, that of nearly 400,000 troops engaged in this frantic expedition, not 50,000, including the Prussian and Austrian contingents, escaped out of Russia. Intoxicated by former successes, Napoleon expected that he had only on this, as on former occasions, to strike deeply into the heart of the invaded country, and that victory would hover round the wings of his eagles; but the constancy of the Russian government, the devoted patriotism of the people, the valour of the Russian army, and above all, the

rigours of the season, consummated the ruin of the legions of an ambitious chief, who, in one expedition, had thus sacrificed, of friends and foes, soldiers and peaceable inhabitants, nearly one million of his species!—The Russian armies pursued the remnant of the French armies into Germany, where the former were joined by Prussia, by the princes of Germany, and finally by Austria. Sweden also joined the league against France. The battle of Leipsic, which was gained by the allies over Bonaparte, determined the fate of Germany, and shook to its foundation the mighty empire raised by Napoleon.—By the treaty of Vienna, in 1815, the duchy of Warsaw, with the exception of certain provinces and districts, was ceded to the Emperor of Russia, who addressed a letter to the Polish diet, announcing the fate of their country, and that he had assumed the title of King of Poland.

RUTILIUS RUFUS (P.), a Roman consul in the age of Sylla, celebrated for his virtues and writings. When Sylla had banished him from Rome he retired to Smyrna, amidst the acclamations and praises of the people; and, when some of his friends wished him to be recalled home by means of a civil war, he severely reprimanded them, and said, that he wished rather to see his country blush at his exile, than to plunge it into distress by his return. He was the first who taught the Roman soldiers the principles of fencing, and, by thus mixing dexterity with valour, rendered their attacks more certain, and more irresistible.

RUYTER (Michael Adriaen de), a Dutch admiral, was born at Flushing in 1607. In the war with England, which broke out in 1652, he convoyed a rich fleet through the channel, and brought the whole into port, after an engagement which lasted two days. He was next joined in command with Van Tromp, and distinguished himself as well in the great battle of three days, fought in February, 1653, as in that where Van Tromp fell in July following. In 1658, he defeated the Swedes, for which the king of Denmark gave him a patent of nobility. At the renewal of hostilities with England, in the reign of Charles II., De Ruyter

gained an advantage over Prince Rupert and Monk; but, two months afterwards, another battle was fought, in which the Dutch were defeated. The following year, however, he avenged himself, by riding triumphantly in the Thames, and destroying several English men-of-war at Sheerness. In 1672, he attacked the combined English and French fleets; and though the battle was undecided, De Ruyter kept the sea, and convoyed home a fleet of merchantmen. This gallant commander was mortally wounded in an engagement with the French, off Messina, and died at Syracuse, April 11, 1676. His remains were interred at Amsterdam, and a monument erected to his memory.

RYDROOGH, a district of Hindostan, subdued by Hyder Ali in 1766, but ceded to the Nizam in 1792, and made over to the British in 1800.

RYE-HOUSE PLOT, took its name, from a farm called the Rye-house, the property of Rumbal, one of the conspirators against the life of Charles II. The particulars of this plot are, that while schemes on a very grand scale were concerting in the higher circles to check the rapid strides of tyranny encroaching on the rights and liberties of the people, others of a subordinate class were hatching, which, though perhaps not exactly on equally honourable principles, were nevertheless somewhat similar as to their final purpose. Among the abettors of this latter class were Colonel Ramsey, an old republican officer; lieutenant-colonel Walcot, Goodenough, under-sheriff of London; Ferguson, an independent minister, and several attorneys, merchants, and tradesmen of London. Their object was to assassinate Charles on his way from Newmarket; but the house in which the king resided there happening to take fire, obliged him to leave that place earlier than he intended; and thus the execution of the design was prevented.

RYSWICK (Treaty of), was concluded on the 11th of Sept., 1697, between the French and English, with no advantage to the latter beyond honour and independence, which perhaps might have been secured at a cheaper rate.

S

SAALFIELD, a small town of Germany, duchy of Saxe Cobourg. In October, 1806, prior to the fatal battle of Jena, Prince Louis Ferdinand of Prussia was defeated and killed here by the French.

SABA, or Sheba, the ancient capital city of Arabia Felix, so called from the grandson of Ham, by Chuz. This was the royal city of that famous queen that came to king Solomon, called the Queen of the South. The city in his time was destroyed by an inundation, together with the inhabitants, in one night. This country was famous for its riches and precious spices. The name of the chief city was Siban or Zibit.

SABINES, an ancient people of Italy, reckoned among the Aborigines, or those inhabitants whose origin was not known. Some suppose that they were originally a Lacedæmonian colony, who settled in that part of the country. The possessions of the Sabines were situated in the neighbourhood of Rome, between the river Nar and the Anio, and bounded on the north by the Apennines and Umbria, south by Latium, east by the Æqui, and Etruria on the west. The greatest part of the contiguous nations were descended from them, such as the Umbrians, the Campanians, the Sabelli, the Osci, Samnites, Hernici, Æqui, Marsi, Brutii, &c. The Sabines are celebrated in ancient history as being the first who took up arms against the Romans, to avenge the rape of their females at a spectacle where they had been invited. After some engagements, the greatest part of the Sabines left their ancient possessions, and migrated to Rome, where they settled with their new allies. They were at last totally subdued about the year of Rome 373, and ranked as Roman citizens. Their chief cities were Cures, Fidene, Reate, Crustumerium, Corniculum, Nomentum, Collatia, &c. The character of the nation for chastity, for purity of morals, and for the knowledge of herbs and incantations was very great.

SABIONETTA, a town of Austrian Italy. It was for a time the capital of a principality of the same name, given in 1806, by an imperial

decree of Bonaparte, to his sister Paulina, and her husband the prince. Borghese, duke of Guastalla, who retained it till the French were driven out of Italy, in 1814.

SACHEVRELL (Henry), a celebrated divine, was the son of a clergyman at Marlborough, where he had his education, and afterwards became demy of Magdalen-college, Oxford. Sachevrell obtained a fellowship; and in 1708 took his doctor's degree. The following year he preached two sermons, one at the assizes at Derby, and the other at St. Paul's, in both which he asserted, that the church was in imminent danger. For these discourses, which were considered as inflammatory, he was impeached by the House of Commons, and tried before the Lords, in 1710; when being found guilty of a misdemeanour, he was suspended from preaching for three years. This only increased his popularity, and brought the ministry into such contempt, that they were obliged to resign their places. At the expiration of the sentence the doctor was presented to the rectory of St. Andrew, Holborn. He died in 1724.

SACKVILLE (Thomas), lord Buckhurst, and Earl of Dorset, was the son of Sir Richard Sackville, and born at Witham, in Sussex, in 1527. He was educated at Harthall, Oxford, from whence he removed to Cambridge, and next to the Inner Temple. On leaving the Temple he went abroad; and, after his return, was made lord Buckhurst. In 1587 he was sent on an embassy to the united provinces. After this he was made knight of the garter; and chosen chancellor of Oxford. On the death of Burleigh he was appointed lord treasurer; and in the next reign created earl of Dorset. He died in 1608.

SACKVILLE (Charles), sixth earl of Dorset and Middlesex, was born in 1637. In 1665 he volunteered on board the fleet; and the night previous to the engagement with the Dutch, wrote the famous song, "To all you Ladies now at land." Soon after this he was made a gentleman of the bed-chamber by Charles II., who also sent him on several embassies. At the Revolution he was appointed lord cham-

berlain to king William, whom he accompanied to Holland. He died at Bath, Jan. 19, 1705-6.

SACKVILLE (George), lord viscount, the third son of the first duke of Dorset, was born in 1716. He obtained a commission in the army, and distinguished himself in the battles of Bettingen and Fontenoy. In 1758 he was made a lieutenant-general; but in the year following fell into disgrace for his conduct at the battle of Minden, owing to a mistake in the orders sent to him by prince Ferdinand. He was tried by a court-martial, and dismissed the service; but was restored in the next reign. In 1775 he was appointed secretary of state for the American colonies; but in 1783 he went out of office, and was created a viscount. He died in 1785.

SACRAMENT (St.), or Colonia, a city and colony which was held by the Portuguese, opposite the city of Buenos-Ayres. It was founded by the Portuguese in 1679, and has occasioned many struggles between Spain and Portugal. It was successively wrested from its founders, restored by Charles V. to the Portuguese, resumed in 1750 by Spain, and finally, in 1778, ceded to the Spaniards, who have ever since remained in possession.

SACROVIR, (Julius) a native of the country of Æduli, or Æduani, in France, and the person who contrived and carried on the revolt of the Gauls against the Romans, under the reign of Tiberius Cæsar: in order to dissemble his being the author of that rebellion, he fought bare-headed amongst the Romans, against those of his own party, who knowing him by this mark, did not shoot at him. This revolution had so much success, that it gave him an opportunity of possessing himself of the city of Autun, the chief city of the country. Tiberius, hearing of the surprize of this city, greatly apprehended the loss of the Gauls, because the greatest lords of the country were bound to follow the fortune of this city. Sacrovir in the meantime raised an army of 40,000 men, and amongst them a number of slaves designed for gladiators, and were called Crupellarii, because of the weight of their arms, which were iron plates covering them from head to foot. The success

did not answer the courage and bravery of the commander; for his army not having been disciplined, was soon routed by the Roman legions, and Sacrovir was compelled to flee to the city of Autun; but not being secure there, he secretly withdrew himself to a country house not far off, where he killed himself; some of his friends also, who saved themselves with him, killed each other, after having set fire to the house.

SADLER, (Sir Ralph), a statesman, was born in 1507, at Hackney, in Middlesex. In early life he was taken into the family of Cromwell, earl of Essex, who introduced him to Henry VIII., in consequence of which he had a share in the dissolution of the monasteries, and partook of the spoil. He was also sent on an embassy to Scotland, to negotiate a marriage between prince Edward and queen Mary, but without effect. In the war which followed, sir Ralph distinguished himself greatly, and was made a knight banneret on the field after the battle of Pinkie. He was also appointed master of the great wardrobe. At the accession of Elizabeth he was again sent to Scotland; and when the unfortunate Mary came to England, she was committed to his care. He died in 1587.

SADRAS, a town of the south of India, province of the Carnatic. It was originally purchased by the Dutch, but was seized by the French in 1759. It was afterwards restored to the Hollanders; but was taken possession of by the British in 1795.

SAGUNTUM, an ancient city of Spain, in alliance with the Romans, the inhabitants of which apprized the senate of all the proceedings of Hannibal in their country; who at last besieging them in the 535th year from the building of Rome, they defended it against him nine months, but being pressed with famine, and tired out with the miseries they had so long endured, kindled a great fire in the midst of their city, into which they cast themselves, with their wives, children, and all their valuables. This was one of the causes of the second punie war, and Hannibal led his army across Gaul, and invaded Italy.

SAHARUNPORE, an extensive district of Hindostan, province of

Delhi. In 1772 it was invaded by the Mahrattas. The successful issue of the war of 1803 enabled the British to become masters of this valuable district.

SAIDA, or **SEIDA**, a sea-port town of Syria, on the site of the ancient Sidon. During the middle ages it was occupied by the French. Its final ruin is said to have been effected by Feckerdine, emir of the Druses, who here established an independent power, with a view of preventing the grand seignior from landing a maritime force here to act against him. Saïda was once the seat of a pachalic, but is now included in that of Damascus.

ST. DIZIER, a city of Champagne in France, famous for its siege maintained by the Count of Sancerre against Charles V. in 1544; who, thinking to take it by surprise, was not only disappointed in his design, but lost many of his men before it, in an assault where the besieged fought hand to hand with their enemies, to defend their walls. Some time after, the city was delivered to Charles V. with the consent of the French king, and again restored to France.

ST. GERMAIN, (Robert, count de) a statesman of France, was born at Louis-le-Saunier, in Franche Comté, in 1708. He entered into the order of Jesuits, which he quitted for the army, and served with distinction in Hungary, against the Turks. On his return to France he distinguished himself in the seven years' war; but not meeting with preferment, he went into the service of Denmark, where he was made field-marshal, and received the order of the elephant. On the execution of count Struensee, he quitted Copenhagen. The count then retired to a little estate in Alsace, from whence he was called to be minister of war, in which department he effected a great reform. He died in 1778.

ST. HELENA, an island in the Southern Atlantic, 1200 miles west of the Continent of Africa, and 1800 east of South America. The island is a rock about 21 miles in circumference, very high and very steep, and only accessible at the landing-place, in a small valley at the east side of it, which is defended by batteries of guns; and as the wind always blows from the south-east, if a ship over-

shoots the island ever so little, she cannot recover it again. St. Helena is said to have been first discovered by the Portuguese, on the festival of the empress Helena, mother of the emperor Constantine the Great, whose name it still bears. The English East India Company took possession of it in 1600, and held it without interruption till the year 1673, when the Dutch took it by surprise. The English, under the command of Captain Munden, recovered it again within the space of a year, and at the same time took three Dutch East India ships that lay in the road. This land is celebrated in modern history, as the place to which the emperor Napoleon was exiled by the confederate powers in August, 1815, and where he died in 1820.—See *Napoleon*.

ST. JEAN D'ANGELEY, or **D'ANGERY**, a town of France. It was founded in 768, by king Pepin; and in 1562, the Earl of Rochefoucault, one of the heads of the Protestant party, besieged it; but Richelieu defended it so successfully, that he was obliged to raise the siege. Afterwards the Protestants took it, and fortified it more regularly. After the battle of Moncontour, in 1569, it was besieged by the duke of Anjou, afterwards Henry III. and was defended by Captain Piles, one of the House of Clermont, who had with him several valiant men of the Protestant party, and a garrison of 2000 men. When the siege was formed, king Charles IX. came into the camp, and two months after the place was surrendered. The Catholics lost before it 10,000 men, and among the rest, the count of Martigues, who was killed in the trenches. The Protestants made themselves masters again of this place in 1621; but being besieged by Louis XIII. the following year, they were forced to surrender it in six weeks.

ST. JOHN, (Henry) viscount Bellingbroke, born at Battersea in 1679, was the son of Sir Henry St. John, by a daughter of Robert Rich, earl of Warwick. In 1700 he obtained a seat in Parliament, where he joined the Tories, and in 1704 was appointed secretary of war and the marines which office he resigned in 1707. On a change of ministers, in 1710, he was made secretary of state, and had the principal concern in settling the peace

HISTORY.

of Utrecht. In 1712 he was created a viscount; but having expected a higher title, he quarrelled with his old friend Harley, and joined the Whigs. At the accession of George I. the seals were taken from him, and his papers seized; in consequence of which he went to France, where he became secretary to the Pretender. Upon this an act of attainder was passed against him; soon after which he was also discarded by his new master. In 1723, he obtained a pardon, but without a reversal of the act of attainder, so that he remained excluded from the House of Lords. This irritated him so much, that he exerted himself through the remainder of that reign and part of the next, as one of the bitterest opponents of the ministry, particularly in a paper called the Craftsman. In 1736 he returned to France; but on the death of his father, he settled at Battersea, where he died of a cancer in the face, November 15, 1751.

SALADIN, or **SALLAH-U-DEEU**, was the son of Nisan-u-deu Aiyvob, a Cürd from the village of Dewun. He was at first general of the army of Nouredin, sultan of Damascus, and in 1164 he conquered Egypt, and married the widow of the prince of Grand Cairo. After the death of Noredin, he was called to that government during the minority of the prince his son. Being advanced to this power, he resolved to attack the Christians; and accordingly, in 1177, having raised an army, he endeavoured to surprize Jerusalem, but was defeated with a great slaughter, on the 25th of November. This loss inspiring him with revenge, in 1180 he passed the Euphrates, took several cities, as far as Nisibe, and made himself formidable to all his neighbours. He took Aleppo in 1184. But not long after, the Christians put a stop to his conquests, by a cessation of arms. The earl of Tripoli being jealous of Guy, king of Jerusalem, persuaded Saladin to break the truce; who, following his counsel, defeated the Christians, the 1st of May, 1187: and having raised an army of above 800,000 men, he obtained a second victory over them, and took Guy in the flight, beheaded all the knights templars, and of St. John, made himself master of Acre, Barut, Giblet, Saide, and divers other places, and at last of Jerusalem. Pope Urban

II. upon hearing of this news, died of grief. Saladin several times stormed the city of Tyre, but was often repulsed; and after some other losses sustained from the Christians, he died in 1193, in the 57th year of his age, having reigned over Egypt 22 years, and 19 as absolute master of Syria. No Asiatic monarch has filled so large a space in the eyes of Europe, as the antagonist of Cœur de Lion. He was a compound of the dignity and baseness, the greatness and the littleness of man. As the Moslem hero of the third holy war, he proved himself a skilful general and a valiant soldier. He hated the Christian cause, for he was a zealous Musselman. He gained the throne by blood, artifice, and treachery; but though ambitious, he was not tyrannical; he was mild to his government; the friend and dispenser of justice. Wars and rebellions filled all the thoughts of Saladin, and he established no principles of succession. Three of his numerous progeny became sovereigns of Aleppo, Damascus, and Egypt; others had smaller possessions; and the emirs and atabaks of Syria again struggled for independence.—See *Crusades*.

SALMANASSAR, or **SHALMAN-EZER**, king of Syria, who besieged Samaria, and after a three years siege captured it in the year 3514, and died A. M. 3518. He was succeeded by Sennacherib, his son.

SALAMANCA, battle of, on the 23d of July, 1812, between the British, under Lord Wellington, and the French, under Marmont. On the 16th of June, Lord Wellington appeared before the city, with his main army, when the French general, leaving a force to defend the fortifications, retired with his troops across the Tormes. He afterwards attempted to relieve the forts, which had been formed into a depot of stores; but the British general compelled him to abandon them to their fate. Major-general Clinton was now ordered to reduce them; and this being accomplished, Lord Wellington put his army in motion against Marmont, who hastily retired across the Douro. A series of skilful movements now ensued on both sides, until the 21st July, when the allied army was concentrated on the Tormes; the French crossed the river on the same day, and appeared to threaten Ciudad

Rodrigo. During the 22d and 23d, Marmont practised a variety of evolutions, to distract the attention of the British general from his real plan. In aiming to surround the British, he extended and weakened his own line; and Lord Wellington, watching the progress of this error, seized the favourable opportunity for striking a decisive blow. His arrangements were soon made, and no time lost in executing them. Major-general Pakenham, with the third division, began a furious assault on the flanks of the enemy's left, in which he was supported by brigadier-general Bradford's brigade, by the fourth and fifth divisions, and by the cavalry under Sir Stapleton Cotton, in front. The French, though finely posted, and supported by cannon, were overthrown. Their centre was driven from the hill with precipitation; the right wing, being joined by some fugitives, maintained a shew of resistance, but they were driven in confusion from the field. The pursuit was continued till night, when the French guard was overtaken, attacked, and put to flight, the cavalry leaving the infantry to their fate. Three whole battalions surrendered, and large quantities of stores, baggage, and ammunition, fell into the conquerors' hands. Eleven pieces of cannon, two eagles, and six colours, were also taken; five generals, three colonels, three lieutenant-colonels, 150 officers, and 7000 soldiers, were made prisoners. The loss of the allies was about 700 killed, and 4000 wounded.

SALAMIS, SALAMINS, or SALAMINA, now **COLOURI**, an island in the Saronicus Sinus, on the southern coast of Attica opposite Eleusis, at the distance of about a league, with a town and harbour of the same name. It was originally peopled by a colony of Ionians, and afterwards by some of the Greeks from the adjacent islands and countries. It is celebrated for a battle which was fought there between the fleet of the Greeks and that of the Persians, when Xerxes invaded Attica. The enemy's ships amounted to above 2,000, and those of the Peloponnesians to about 380 sail. In this engagement, which was fought on the 20th of October, B. C. 480, the Greeks lost 40 ships, and the Persians about 200, besides an immense number which

were taken, with all the ammunition they contained.

SALANKEMEN, a small town of the Austrian States, in Slavonia. The Austrians, under Prince Louis of Baden, defeated the Turks here in 1691; and again under prince Eugene, in 1716.

SALAZAR, Jean de, counsellor to Charles VII. king of France, and captain of an hundred lances, under Lewis XI. This prince had so great an esteem for his courage, that he trusted him with the command of the vanguard of his army at the battle of Montleheri, together with the great seneschal of Normandy, and the Sieur de Barbesan. He some time after defended Paris. He commanded four hundred lances, and six hundred archers for the inhabitants of Liege against their bishop, and in 1469, he maintained the siege of Beauvais against the Duke of Burgundy under the Earl of Dammartin, and Jolakim Rouhaud, marshal of France. He also assisted in the conquest of the Franche Comté, where he had the government of Gral bestowed upon him. He died at Trois, December 12, 1479.

SALISBURY, or NEW SARUM, an ancient city of England in the county of Wilts. A parliament was summoned here in the reign of Edward I.; another was held in 1328, to inquire into the state of the kingdom, then under the tyranny of queen Isabel and earl Mortimer; and it was here the latter broke in upon their deliberations with an armed force. In the first year of Richard III. Henry Stafford, duke of Buckingham, by whose influence and exertions Richard was advanced to the throne, was executed here. During the civil wars of Charles I. Salisbury was frequently laid under contributions by the contending parties.

SALLUST, a Latin historian born at Amiternum, in the country of the Sabines. He received his education at Rome, and made himself known as a public magistrate in the office of quaestor and consul. His licentiousness, and the depravity of his manners, however, did not escape the censure of the age, and Sallust was degraded from the dignity of a senator, B. C. 50. A continuation of extravagance

HISTORY.

could not long be supported by the income of Sallust, but he extricated himself from all difficulties by embracing the cause of Cæsar. He was restored to the rank of senator, and made governor of Numidia. In the administration of his province, Sallust behaved with unusual tyranny; he enriched himself by plundering the Africans, and at his return to Rome he built himself a magnificent house, and bought gardens, which, from their delightful and pleasant situation, still preserve the name of the gardens of Sallust. He died in the 51st year of his age, 35 years before the Christian era.

SALOMON, Duke of Brittany, succeeded Harispoge or Maruspee; the Britains chose him for their prince, and he passed for a saint. He usurped the title of king, and in 863 submitted himself to Charles the Bald, and assisted him against the Normans, who were their common enemies. He was killed in 875.

SALOMON, king of Hungary, was the son of Andrew I. whom his brother Bela I. dethroned in 1061; but the emperor, Henry IV. entered into an alliance with Salomon, and restored him to his father's throne. He waged war against the Bohemians, and reigned till 1074, when his cousins Geisla and Ladislaus, sons of Bela, expelled him from his kingdom. After this he took a monk's habit, and died at Pola, in Istria, 1095.

SALSBURG, a province in the west of the Austrian empire, lying between Styria, Tyrol, and Bavaria. In 1802, it was made over to the Grand Duke of Tuscany: in 1806, it was incorporated with the Austrian States; but in 1809, it was transferred to Bavaria. After the overthrow of Bonaparte, it was restored, with the exception of a part of its territory, to Austria. The revenue afforded by it is about £100,000 a year.

SALSETTE, an island on the western coast of Hindostan. The first account we have of this island, is dated in 1330; it was then governed by a Mahometan judge. It was taken possession of by the Portuguese in the 16th century, and from them by the Mahrattas in 1750. In 1773, during a rupture with the Mahrattas, it was occupied by the British troops, and

has ever since remained in their possession.

SAMNITES, an ancient people of Italy, who inhabited the dukedom of Benevento, the province of Abruzzo, la Capitanata, and Terra di Lavoro, &c. They waged wars against the Romans for a long time, till they were wholly subdued by them.

SAMOS, an island in the *Ægean* sea, on the coast of Asia Minor, from which it is divided by a narrow strait, with a capital of the same name, built B. C. 986. It was first in the possession of the Leleges, and afterwards of the Ionians. The people of Samos were at first governed by kings, and afterwards the form of their government became democratical and oligarchical. Samos was in its most flourishing situation under Polycrates, who had made himself absolute there. The Samians assisted the Greeks against the Persians, when Xerxes invaded Europe, and were reduced under the power of Athens, after a revolt, by Pericles, B. C. 441. They were afterwards subdued by Eumenes, king of Pergamus, and were restored to their ancient liberty by Augustus. Under Vespasian, Samos became a Roman province.

SAMPIETRO BASTELICA, was a native of the isle of Corsica, and was more known and esteemed for his valour, than for the riches and grandeur of his family. He served France in the wars in Piedmont, and in Italy against the Genoese, and gained almost the whole isle of Corsica from them. After the peace of Cheateau Cambresis, in 1555, and the tragical end of king Henry II., he resolved to go to Constantinople, to demand assistance there; the Genoese had seized all his goods, and set a price on his head; for which he was resolved to be revenged on them. As he was on this journey, he was informed that his wife, whom he had left at Marseilles, was resolved to go to Genoa. This news putting him into a desperate rage, he sent one of his servants to stop her journey: some had persuaded her that she might easily obtain her husband's pardon of that republic, and the great love she had for her husband engaged her in this resolution. Sampietro found his wife at Aix, from whence he carried her

back to Marseilles; and being alone with her, told her she must prepare for death. Vannina received this dreadful sentence with great courage, and he strangled her. This barbarous action stained Sampietro's former reputation, yet returning into Corsica, in the year 1564, he made a great part of the isle revolt. Though he had not above 25 men with him on his arrival, he gained several advantages over the Genoese, and took several places from them; they at last induced one of his company, named Vitelli, to murder him in January, 1567.

SAMUEL, a prince of the Bulgarians, who gained a battle against the Emperor Basilus, but was afterwards defeated by him. He caused the eyes of 15,000 soldiers, whom he had taken prisoners, to be plucked out, except one captain, to whom he left one eye, that he might be able to conduct the rest back again to their own country. This horrid spectacle so affected Samuel, that he died of grief a few days afterwards.

SANCERRE, (Lewis of) Knight, and Lord of Charenton, &c. He performed great services for king Charles V. in his wars, who honored him with the baton of marshal of France in the year 1350. He assisted the constable Gueselin in the conquest of Guienne, and some time after he was made commander of the king's army in that country against the English in 1381. He had also the command of the vanguard of the French army, jointly with the constable de Clisson at the battle of Rossebec, in 1382, against the Flemings. Afterwards returning to Guienne, he opposed himself against the attempts of the English in 1383 and 1385. After the death of the Earl of Eu, he was made Lord High Constable of France. He died in 1402, aged 60.

SANCHO, King of Leon and Asturia, succeeded his brother Ordonnus in 956. He was surnamed The Big, because so fat that he was unfit for any action, which obliged him to continue the truce with Abderamus king of Corduba, to which city he came, to take the advice of some physicians, who perfectly rid him of his fatness. In the meantime his subjects rebelled against him, and set upon the throne Ordonnus, the son of Alphonsus IV

called The Monk; but Sancha defeated them, and routed the Moors that were come to attack him in his capital city. Having suppressed this rebellion and pardoned the ringleader of it, he was soon after poisoned with an apple by him whose life he had spared, An. 967.

SANCHO I. King of Castile, is the same with the king of Navarre, the third of that name, surnamed the Great. Ferdinand I. succeeded him in the kingdom of Castile, and was father of Sancha II. who reigned six years and a half. He was brother of Garcias, king of Galicia, of Alphonsus king of Leon, and of a sister who was lady of Zamora. Sancha dethroned the first of these, forced the second to go into a monastery, and himself was killed at the siege of Zamora in 1072.

SANCHO III., the eldest son of Alphonsus VIII., surnamed the Good, succeeded him in 1157, and reigned only one year and eleven days. Sancha IV. had received his life from Alphonsus X. king of Leon and Castile, and yet waged war against him with so much fury, that Pope Martin IV. excommunicated him upon that account. He usurped the kingdom from his two nephews Alphonsus and Ferdinand, who were the sons of his elder brother Ferdinand and Blanche of France, the daughter of St. Lewis. Sancha reigned alone in the year 1224. He was surnamed the Brave, and died in 1225.

SANCHO, the first of that name, king of Navarre, surnamed Garcias, was the son of Garcias Innuque. He married two wives, and of the second, called Tuta, he had Garcias, who succeeded him in 905, and was father of Sancha II. surnamed Abarca. Sancha III., surnamed the Great, succeeded Garcias his father. He was a virtuous prince, and his valour added great lustre to his crown. He was killed as going on foot like a private man to Oviedo, in 1034. Sancha IV. began his reign in 1054, and was dethroned by his cousin german Sancha V. son of Ramiro I. king of Arragon, in 1074. Sancha was killed at the siege of Huesca in 1044. In the meantime Garcias, the son Ramiro of Monson, and grandson of Ramiro Calahorre, brother to Sancha IV., recovered Navarre in 1134, and being killed by a fall from his horse when hunting, had

HISTORY.

for his successor, in 1150, **SANCHO VI.** surnamed the Wise. He carried on several wars against his neighbours, and after a reign of 43 years, died at Pampelona the 27th of June, 1194. **SANCHO VII.** surnamed the strong, his son and successor, being deposed, was cast into prison, where he died in 1234.

SANCHO, the first of that name, king of Portugal, succeeded his father **Alphonsus I.** in 1185. He died in 1212, being 58 years of age. **Alphonsus II.** was father of **Sancho II.** surnamed **Capel.** His subjects being weary of him, sent for **Alphonsus** brother of **Sancho**, who was in France, where he had married **Maud** countess of **Boulogne**; who, being placed upon the throne, continued the succession of the kings of Portugal; and **Sancho** being driven from his kingdom, died at **Toledo** in 1248, aged 45.

SANQUHAR, a royal burgh of Scotland, in the county of **Dumfries.** It was in the possession of the English in the reign of **Edward I.** but was re-captured by **William Douglas**, who put the garrison to the sword.

SAPOR, a king of Persia, who succeeded his father **Artaxerxes** about the 78th year of the Christian era. Naturally fierce and ambitious, **Sapor** wished to increase his paternal dominions by conquest; and as the indolence of the emperors of Rome seemed favourable to his views, he laid waste the provinces of **Mesopotamia**, **Syria**, and **Cilicia**; and he might have become master of all Asia, if **Odenatus** had not stopped his progress. If **Gordian** attempted to repel him, his efforts were weak, and **Philip**, who succeeded him on the imperial throne, bought the peace of **Sapor** with money. **Valerian**, who was afterwards invested with the purple, marched against the Persian monarch, but he was defeated and taken prisoner. **Odenatus** no sooner heard that the Roman emperor was a captive in the hands of **Sapor**, than he attempted to release him by force of arms. The forces of Persia were cut to pieces, the wives and the treasures of the monarch fell into the hands of the conqueror, and **Odenatus** penetrated, with little opposition, into the very heart of the kingdom. **Sapor**, soon after this defeat, was assassinated by his subjects, A. D. 273, after a reign

of 32 years. The second of that name succeeded his father **Hormisdas** on the throne of Persia. He was as great as his ancestor of the same name; and by undertaking a war against the Romans, he attempted to enlarge his dominions, and to add the provinces on the west of the **Euphrates** to his empire. His victories alarmed the Roman emperors, and **Julian** would have perhaps seized him in the capital of his dominions, if he had not received a mortal wound. **Jovian**, who succeeded **Julian**, made peace with **Sapor**; but the monarch, always restless and indefatigable, renewed hostilities, invaded **Armenia** and defeated the emperor **Valens.** **Sapor** died A. D. 380, after a reign of 70 years, in which he had often been the sport of fortune. He was succeeded by **Artaxerxes**, and **Artaxerxes** by **Sapor** the third, a prince who died after a reign of five years, A. D. 389, in the age of **Theodosius** the Great.

SARACENS, a warlike nation of Mahometan Arabs. In the year 500, they overran the whole of **Syria**, and **Phœnicia**; but in 503 their army was cut to pieces by **Cabades**, king of Persia. In 509 they invaded **Arabia** and **Palestine**, and in 612 they again ravaged **Syria.** Their caliphs began in 622 with **Mahomet**, who died in 632, and was succeeded by his father-in-law, **Abu-becher**, who defeated the Persians at **Merga** in the same year. In 634, the Saracens took the city of **Damascus**, having defeated the emperor's troops under **Theodorus** and **Bahanes.** In 637 they took **Jerusalem**, and in 640 they took **Alexandria**, and burned its invaluable library. They became masters of **Africa** in 647, and settling in this quarter, they obtained the appellation of **Moors.** In 653, under the conduct of **Muavius**, they conquered the island of **Rhodes**, and destroyed the famous colossal statue of **Apollo**, whilst another party ravaged **Armenia**, and defeated the Greeks at sea. In 658, they offered peace to the emperor **Constans**, who granted it on condition of the caliph paying him an annual subsidy of 100,000 crowns, with a richly caparisoned horse, and a slave. In 669, the Saracens ravaged **Sicily**, and pillaged and destroyed the city of **Syracuse**: they also invaded **Syria** and **Asia Minor**; and in the following year they landed in **Thrace**,

and besieged Constantinople from April to September. In 673 they renewed the siege without effect, when their fleet, off Cyricum, was destroyed with the Greek fire, by Calinaeus. In attempting to land in Spain in 675, they were defeated by Wamba, who burnt their flotilla; and in the next year they purchased a peace for thirty years, of the emperor Constantine. In 698 they took Carthage, expelled the Romans from Africa, and in the year 701, they are said to have fought eighty-one battles. In 707 they attacked the Romans; and in 713, under Muça, they conquered Spain, and killed Roderic the last king of the Goths, in an obstinate engagement on the 3d of September. In 717, they again unsuccessfully besieged Constantinople; and in 732 they invaded France, when they were defeated by Charles Martel, near Tours, on which occasion 375,000 of them are said to have perished. In 749, the race of Abbas became caliphs of the Saracens, and the empire was divided into three parts; but in 756 they revolted, and established the kingdom of Corduba, under Muavia. In 793 they infested the sea with their piracies, and ravaged Gallia Narbonensis, where they were defeated by Charlemagne. They took possession of Crete in 823, and called it Candia; and in 827 they took Sicily, Calabria, &c. ravaged Galicia, and pillaged the Churches, &c. In 846, the Saracens passed from Africa into Italy, laid siege to Rome, and pillaged the suburbs; and in 849 their fleet was dispersed, and their army routed by the allies of the pope Leo IV. In 851 they ravaged Sardinia and Corsica. In 865 a war broke out among them in the east; and those of the west ravaged Italy, and were repulsed by Louis II. In 939, they were defeated by Ramirus II. king of Leon, at Salamanca, with the loss of 80,000 men. In 969, Otho, the younger, drove them out of Italy: and in 983, Otho II. marched against them but was killed by a poisoned arrow. In 1008 they made themselves masters of Capua. In the following year, a party of them besieged Jerusalem, destroyed the church of the Holy Sepulchre, and burnt the Monastery; but in 1065, the Turks wrested the city from them. A civil war now broke out among the Saracens in Spain,

which continued till 1091, and ended with their becoming subject to those of Africa or the Moors. In 1125, they were again defeated by king Baldwin, near Antioch; and at length, in 1159, the Tartars took Bagdad, and overthrew the whole empire.

SARAGOSSA, or ZARAGOZA, a celebrated city in the north-east of Spain, famous in history for its dreadful sieges in 1808 and 1809; contests in which was displayed the unyielding fortitude of the inhabitants of the north of Spain. The French having obtained possession of Navarre in June 1808, advanced to Saragossa, and attempting to take the city by assault, were repulsed with loss. Returning with augmented numbers, they occupied the best positions, and invested nearly half the town, keeping up a fire from mortars and battering cannon. On the 4th of August they entered the central street, but they were unable to make much progress, and, discouraged by intelligence from the south of Spain, retired at last, on the 14th. The second siege was no less obstinate and sanguinary. The French, with great reinforcements, marched in the end of November, 1808, once more against Saragossa. Their first great attack, gave them possession of some important posts, but with heavy loss. On the 10th of January began the bombardment, which, violent as it was, caused less injury than a contagious fever among the garrison. The Spaniards, however, continued to make, under the brave Pallafox, a most determined resistance, and it was not till after a bombardment of six weeks, and a very unequal contest in mining, that Saragossa surrendered.

SARATOGA, a township and village of the United States, in Saratoga county, New York, memorable as the place where General Burgoyne surrendered the British army to General Gates. General Burgoyne took possession of Stonderoga, pushed his successes, crossed Lake George, and encamped upon the banks of the Hudson, near Saratoga. His progress was, however, checked near Bennington, when the undisciplined militia of Vermont displayed the most exemplary bravery. The militia now assembled from all parts of New England to stop the progress of General Burgoyne. These, with the regular

HISTORY.

troops, formed a respectable army, commanded by General Gates. After two severe actions, in which Generals Lincoln and Arnold behaved with much gallantry, General Burgoyne found himself enclosed, and was obliged to surrender his whole army, amounting to several thousand men. This memorable event happened on the 17th of October, 1777; it diffused an universal joy over America, and laid the foundation of a treaty with France.

SARDANAPALUS, the 40th, and last king of Assyria, celebrated for his luxury and voluptuousness. His effeminacy irritated his officers; Belshazzar and Arsaces conspired against him, and collected a numerous force to dethrone him. Sardanapalus quitted his voluptuousness for a while, and appeared at the head of his armies. The rebels were defeated in three successive battles, but at last Sardanapalus was beaten and besieged in the city of Ninus for two years. When he despaired of success, he burned himself in his palace, with his eunuchs, concubines, and all his treasures, and the empire of Assyria was divided among the conspirators. This famous event happened B. C. 820, according to Eusebius.

SARDINIA, the name of a kingdom in the south of Europe, composed in part of the island of Sardinia, but in a much greater proportion of Piedmont, Savoy, and the territory of Genoa. In 1720, Victor Amadeus II. exchanged the island of Sicily for Sardinia, and assumed the present royal title. After a peace of thirty years, this state became involved in the war between France and Austria, which was closed by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748. The contest occasioned by the part which Sardinia took in the French revolution, began in 1792, and was maintained until 1796, when the assumption of the command by Bonaparte, led to the overthrow of the allied forces in the course of a few weeks, and to the conclusion of an unfavourable treaty of peace. This treaty was followed in two years by the removal of the royal family to Sardinia, and the incorporation of their continental states with the French territory. The prospect of reinstatement opened by the process of the allies in 1799, was completely overcast by the battle of Marengo. The continental

territories were not restored to the legitimate sovereign until the overthrow of Bonaparte in 1814.

SARDINIA, a large island of the Mediterranean, to the south of Corsica. It is unknown in history until the time of its occupancy by the Carthaginians, who, doubtless confined themselves to a few maritime stations, from which they were expelled by the Romans in the first Punic war. The Romans, after establishing themselves here two centuries before the Christian era, continued in possession of the island until the decline of the empire, when it was invaded by the Saracens. The sovereignty of the island was acquired by the king of Arragon, and retained by the crown of Spain until the 18th century. In 1719 it was given to the duke of Savoy. In 1794 the inhabitants of Cagliari, encouraged by the progress of the French revolution, rose in insurrection, and caused the Piedmontese viceroy, with all the individuals of his country, to be sent out of the island. The other towns followed the example; and the result was, that after two years of contention, the king granted a general pardon, declared that the cortes or representative body, should assemble at least once in ten years, and confirmed all the ancient laws, customs, and privileges of the inhabitants.

SARDIS, an ancient city of Lydia formerly its capital. Cyrus took this city in the 59th Olympiad, and subdued the whole kingdom of Lydia, taking Cræus the king, prisoner. In the 69th Olympiad, Aristagoras having got twenty ships from the Athenians, persuaded the people to rebel against the Persians, and some time after took the city and burnt it, which occasioned the wars between the Persians and the Greeks. Antiochus Magnus took this city in 3736 from Achæus by treason, after a year's siege. Tamerlane likewise besieged this city six years, and ruined it about 1398. The city stood on the edge of a spacious and fruitful plain, and has still many marks of its antiquity to be found amongst its ruins. It was anciently one of the strongest inland cities of Asia, especially when besieged by Antiochus Magnus. In this city Antigonus caused Cleopatra, the sister of Alexander the Great, to be put to death, A. R. 446.

SARDONII, Sardonians, a people of Africa, so called from one Sardo, who was king over them. They had a custom of sacrificing their parents to Saturn, when they attained the age of seventy, and performed this barbarous ceremony with laughter and mirth, which has given occasion to the Latin proverb of risus Sardonius.

SARGAPISES, the only son of Thomyris, the famous queen of the Scythians; he was very young when Cyrus, invading Scythia with a powerful army, passed the river Araxis, and advanced within a day's journey of Thomyris, her dominions, and then retired in haste, to make it appear that he had ventured too far. Thomyris sent the third part of her army, under the command of her son, to pursue him, who suffering his soldiers to drink wine, they were soon overtaken, and Cyrus returning upon them, cut them to pieces. Sargapises died in the combat, but his mother revenged his death, some days after, by killing Cyrus himself and an immense army of Persians.

SARMATIA, an extensive country at the north of Europe and Asia, divided into European and Asiatic. The European was bounded by the ocean on the north, Germany and the Vistula on the west, the Jaxgæ on the south, and the Tanais on the east. The Asiatic was bounded by Hyrcania, the Tanais, and the Euxine sea. The former contains the modern kingdoms of Russia, Poland, Lithuania, and Little Tartary; and the latter, Great Tartary, Circassia, and the neighbouring country. The Sarmatians were a savage uncivilized nation, often confounded with the Scythians, naturally warlike, and famous for painting their bodies to appear more terrible in the field of battle. They were well known for their lewdness, and they passed among the Greeks and Latins by the name of barbarians. In the time of the emperors they became very powerful: they disturbed the peace of Rome by their frequent incursions; till at last, increased by the savage hordes of Scythia, under the barbarous names of Huns, Vandals, Goths, Alans, &c., they successively invaded and ruined the empire in the third and fourth centuries of the Christian era.

SATARAH, a town and fortress of

Hindustan, province of Bejapore. It capitulated, after a very short resistance, to the British, in 1818. This fortress was taken from the king of Bejapore by the Mahratta chief Sevajee, in 1673, and was captured by Amingzebe in 1690; but was re-taken soon after the death of that monarch, in 1707.

SAVENDROOG, a celebrated fortress of the south of India, province of Mysore. It was considered by the natives impregnable; but was taken by storm, without the loss of a man, by the British, in 1791. It was used by Hyder Aly, and Tippoo Sultan, as a state prison.

SAVONA, a maritime town, in the north-west of Italy. In 1745, sixteen French and Spanish vessels, laden with military stores, and lying in its harbour, were sunk by the bombs of a British squadron. In 1746, the king of Sardinia took the town; and in 1810 and 1811, pope Pius VII. resided here some time during his dispute with Bonaparte.

SAVILLE (George, marquis of Halifax), a statesman, was born in Yorkshire, in 1633. He was created a peer for his loyalty at the Restoration; and in 1682 was raised to the dignity of a marquis, soon after which he was made lord privy seal. At the beginning of the reign of James II, he was appointed president of the council, but on refusing his consent to the repeal of the test acts, he was dismissed. In the convention parliament, he sat as speaker of the House of Lords, and concurred in all the measures of the Revolution; but afterwards he joined the opposition. He died in 1695.

SAVOY, the *Saubaia* of the ancients, is bounded on the west by France; on the south, by France and Piedmont; on the east, by Piedmont, the Milanese, and Switzerland; and on the north, by the lake of Genoa. From the year 1000 till 1580, a long list of princes governed Savoy; but their reigns were uninteresting, and marked by no political event of importance. In 1580, Charles Emanuel invaded the marquisate of Saluces, which he wrested from France, and thereby gained a frontier for his capital of Turin. He was succeeded by Victor Amadeus I., who waged war against the Spaniards with equal success, in 1635. Francis Hyacinth,

HISTORY.

Charles Emanuel II. and Charles Emanuel III., were his successors. To the last of these princes, Turin owes some of her most magnificent structures; and he also caused the amazing passage through the rock Mount Viso to be cut. Charles Emanuel was succeeded by his son Victor Amadeus II., in 1675, who persecuted his protestant subjects, the Valdenses, with all the fury and malice of a bigot, and who was besieged in his capital of Turin by the French, till the latter had lost fourteen thousand men before the place, and the ammunition of the besieged was almost exhausted. The duke of Savoy was soon after joined by prince Eugene, whom he assisted in defeating the French, and driving them out of Lombardy. He formally resigned his crown to the prince of Piedmont, in 1714, Charles Emanuel, his son, reserving for himself a yearly income of one hundred thousand pounds. Accordingly, Charles Emanuel III. succeeded him in the government; but being persuaded by an interested minister, that his father was endeavouring to gain over the troops, and that he held frequent conferences with physicians and apothecaries, he caused him to be dragged from his bed, and carried to a house with latticed windows, which in every thing resembled a prison, in 1720. The old man died soon after. Some years after the commencement of the French revolution, Savoy was ceded by Charles Emanuel to France, and constituted one of the departments, called the department of Mont Blanc. In this state it continued till the general peace, in 1814, when Savoy was restored to the family of its former possessors, in the person of Victor Emanuel, king of Sardinia.

SUCCESSION OF PRINCES, COUNTS, OR EARLS.

- 1000 Beroald the Saxon.
- 1027 Humbert I. White Hands.
- 1048 Amadeus I. Count of Maurienne.
- 1072 Humbert II.
- 1108 Amadeus II.
- 1148 Humbert II. the Saint.
- 1188 Thomas.
- 1233 Amadeus III.
- 1253 Boniface, or Roland.
- 1263 Peter, or Charlemagne the Little.
- 1268 Philip.
- 1285 Amadeus IV. or V. the Great.
- 1323 Edward.

490

- 1329 Almon.
 - 1343 Amadeus VI. the Green.
 - 1383 Amadeus VII. the Red.
- ### DUKES.
- 1391 Amadeus VIII. the Pacific.
 - 1451 Louis.
 - 1465 Amadeus IX. the Saint.
 - 1472 Philibert I. the Hunter.
 - 1482 Charles I. the Warlike.
 - 1499 Charles II.
 - 1496 Philip Lackland.
 - 1497 Philibert II. the Fair.
 - 1504 Charles III. the Good.
 - 1553 Emanuel Philibert, Iron Hand.
 - 1580 Charles Emanuel I. the Great.
 - 1630 Victor Amadeus I.
 - 1637 Francis Hyacinthus.
 - 1638 Charles Emanuel II.
 - 1675 Victor Amadeus II.

In 1713, the house of Savoy became regal, by the accession of Victor Amadeus to the crown of Sicily, which, in 1718, he exchanged with the emperor for Sardinia.

KINGS OF SARDINIA AND DUKES OF SAVOY.

- 1718 Victor Amadeus II.
- 1730 Charles Emanuel III.
- 1773 Victor Amadeus III.
- 1796 Charles Emanuel IV.

In 1792, Savoy was seized by the French republicans, and made a department, under the name of Mont Blanc. In 1802, Piedmont was also annexed to that republic.

KING OF SARDINIA.

- 1802 Emanuel V.

SAXE (Maurice, count de), a celebrated general, was born in 1696, at Dresden, being the natural son of Frederic Augustus, elector of Saxony, and king of Poland, by the countess of Konigsmark. At the age of twelve years he was at the siege of Lisle, where he displayed signal courage; as he did the following year at that of Tournay. He bore a part in the battle of Malplaquet, and in 1711 accompanied the king of Poland to Stralsund, where he swam over the river, with a pistol in his hand, in sight of the enemy. On his return to Dresden, the king raised a regiment of horse for him, which he instructed in new evolutions. He continued to distinguish himself in the war with Sweden; and in 1717 served against the Turks. In 1720 he obtained the rank of marechal de camp, in the French army. In 1726 he was chosen duke of Courland; but the election being set aside, he returned to

France, where he was made lieutenant-general in 1734. In 1741 he took Prague by assault; in 1744 he was appointed a marshal of France; and the next year he gained the battle of Fontenoy. This was followed by the capture of Brussels, and the battle of Raucoux, for which the king of France made him marshal-general of his camps and armies. In 1747 he achieved the victory of Lahfeldt; and in 1748 took Maestricht. He died Nov. 30, 1750.

SAXONY. The Saxons are supposed by most authors to be the ancient Catti described by Tacitus. The government of the whole Saxon nation was vested in twelve chieftains, who were chosen annually, and who elected from among themselves a chief judge. In time of war they chose a king, whose power ceased on the return of peace. Charlemagne, on succeeding his father Pepin, in 772, resolved to compel the Saxons to change their religion, and embrace Christianity. Accordingly, he attacked and defeated them, and obliged their king, Wittekind, to fly into Denmark, who, finding himself totally unable to resist the force of the victorious Charlemagne, accepted the conditions offered him, and was baptized with his whole family, by Lullo, bishop of Mentz. In 804, after a calamitous war of thirty years, the Saxons were entirely subdued, when Charles had defeated them in numerous battles, and transported many thousands to Flanders, Brabant, and other countries. The subsequent sovereigns of Saxony have uniformly asserted themselves to be descended from the illustrious Wittekind; and the reigning family still pride themselves on the same origin. They reckon among their progenitors several great men who were honoured with the surnames of the Grave, the Pacific, the Constant, the Pious, the Magnanimous, and some of whom wore crowns, whilst others declined them. From the middle of the ninth century, when the succession of the dukes of Saxony commenced, to the present time, are reckoned thirty-six, almost without interruption, and this proves that the generality of those princes attained an advanced age, though living chiefly amid the dangers of war. Frederic Augustus succeeded his father as elector, in

1763, at the age of thirteen years. The Saxons remained neutral in the war of 1740, between Russia and Austria. In 1756 they were tempted to take a part by the flattering promises of Austria, but they soon had cause to repent. In the war of 1793, the contingent furnished by Saxony against France was not large, and no decided part was taken in the war until 1806, when the elector sent all his troops to the field in support of Prussia. The overthrow of that power enabled Bonaparte to attach the Saxons to his cause by the most substantial advantages. The title of elector was changed for that of king. In 1813 Saxony was the scene of the great continental struggle against Bonaparte. The decision of the congress of Vienna, after the fall of Bonaparte, caused the dismemberment of the northern and eastern part of the Saxon territory. Having taken part with Prussia in the unfortunate contest with France, in 1806, he was under the necessity of making his peace with the conqueror, who, in order to separate him from the interests of the Prussian monarch, treated him with great lenity, induced him to accede to the confederation of the Rhine, and gave him the title of king. On the irruption of the allied armies into Saxony, in 1813, the king quitted Dresden, and identified his interests with the interests of France. After the battle of Leipsic, that city was taken by assault; and the king of Saxony, with his whole court, was made prisoners. This country was afterwards placed under the provisional occupation of Prussia; and Frederic William made known his intention of uniting Saxony to Prussia. However, the energetic conduct of the king of Saxony preserved him from total ruin. By the treaty of Vienna, in 1815, that sovereign ceded to Prussia certain districts and territories belonging to the kingdom of Saxony; and the Saxon people, to whom the paternal sway of their king had endeared him, passed under the government of Prussia with extreme reluctance.

SCALA (Bartholomew), an Italian statesman, was born about 1424. His origin was mean; but on going to Florence he found a patron in Cosmo de Medici, by which means he was employed in negotiations, obtained

HISTORY.

officers of nobility, and was made chancellor of the republic. Pope Innocent VIII. knighted him; and in 1496 he was appointed standard bearer of Florence. He died in 1497.

SCANDERBEG, the name given by the Turks to George Castriot, king of Albania; his father's name was John, who being reduced to extremity by Amurath II., was forced to put five of his sons into his hands, of whom Scanderbeg was the youngest. He pleased the tyrant, who poisoned his brothers, but spared him. Finding him endowed with very extraordinary qualities, he had him educated. Having given several instances of his courage in Amurath's service, who was the usurper of his estates, he thought it was high time to think of making use of his valour for himself against the tyrant. In this design he so dextrously deceived the governor of Croya, the chief city of Albania, that he made himself master of that and several other places; and in 1343 took possession of his hereditary dominion, and upon his being admitted to the crown he declared himself a Christian. He compelled the Turks to raise the siege of Croya, and cut to pieces the forces that were sent against him. Amurath himself having laid a second siege to this place, died before the walls, without being able to take it, though he was extremely desirous of being revenged on Scanderbeg. Under Mahomet II. he had seven or eight armies to contest with, but the victory was still on his side. It is said, that though he had killed above two thousand Turks with his own hand, yet was he never wounded. Mahomet, compelled by his valour and success, made peace with him, while Scanderbeg took a journey to the kingdom of Naples. The Turks, seeing the truce expire, laid siege again to Croya, but to no purpose; for Scanderbeg was soon with them, and forced them to raise the siege twice. He died at Lissa, a city belonging to the Venetians, Jan. 27, 1477, in the sixty-third year of his age.

SCANDINAVIA, a name given by the ancients to Norway, Sweden, Finland, and Lapland, which they supposed to be an island.

SCAURUS (M. Æmilius), a Roman consul, who distinguished himself by his eloquence at the bar, and by his

successes in Spain, in the capacity of commander. He was sent against Jugurtha, and some time after accused of suffering himself to be bribed by the Numidian prince. Scaurus conquered the Ligurians, and in his censorship he built the Milvian bridge at Rome, and began to pave the road, which from him was called the Æmilian. He was originally very poor. He wrote some books, and among these a history of his own life, all now lost. His son, of the same name, made himself known by the large theatre which he built during his edileship. This theatre, which could contain 30,000 spectators, was supported by 360 columns of marble, 33 feet in height, and adorned with 3000 brazen statues. This celebrated edifice, according to Pliny, proved more fatal to the manners and the simplicity of the Romans, than the proscriptions and wars of Sylla had done to the inhabitants of the city.

SCÆVA, a centurion in the army of Julius Cæsar, who having given instances of his valour on many occasions, exhibited an extraordinary proof of it in defence of the fort of Dyrrachium, a town of Macedonia, where he received on his buckler 237 arrows. Cæsar, having seen his buckler thus pierced, bestowed on him 2000 crowns, and from the eighth centurion advanced him to be the first.

SCHIERLING, a village of Germany, in Bavaria. This village was the scene of an obstinate conflict on the 20th of April, 1809, between the archduke Charles and Bonaparte, generally called the battle of Abensberg. The former was defeated, and after an ineffectual attempt to check the advance of the French at Ratisbon, was obliged to retire, leaving open the road to Vienna.

SCHLEITZ, a small town of Upper Saxony. A Prussian corps sustained a defeat here from the French, on the 9th of October, 1806, a few days before the battle of Jena.

SCHOMBERG (Charles), esteemed by Lewis XIII. for his many important services rendered to the crown of France. He first signalized himself at the siege of Sommerive, in Languedoc; showed great conduct at the attack of Pas de Suse, and taking of Privas, in 1629; accompanied the king in his voyage to Savoy, in 1630; was

dangerously wounded at the battle of Rouvroi, in 1632; but afterwards worsted the Spaniards in Roussillon; forced them to raise the siege of Leucate; overthrew them at Canet and Sigeau, in 1639; relieved Ilhes, in Catalonia, in 1640; and took Perpignan and Salces in 1642. He died in 1656, in the 56th year of his age.

SCHOMBERG (Henry), earl of Nanteuil and Duretal, was the son of Gaspar Schomberg, a German, and succeeded his father in the command of marshal de camp general of the German troops in the French king's service. He was sent ambassador extraordinary to England, in 1615; at his return he had a command in the army of Piedmont, under the marshal Lesdigueres, and contributed to the taking of several places in 1620. He assisted at the reduction of the cities of Rouen, Caen, la Fleche, Pont de Ce, and Navarreins, as well as at the sieges of St. Jean d'Angely and Montauban. He also shared in the honour of taking of Roianne, Negrepelisse, Marsillargues, and other places in Languedoc; in 1627 he was present at the action of the Isle of Re, where the English were defeated. In 1630 he took Pignerol, and relieved Casal, and gained the battle of Castelnaudary. He died at Bourdeaux in 1632, in the forty-ninth year of his age. He was buried in the church of the priory of Nanteuil.

SCHOMBERG (Frederic, duke of), an eminent general, was the son of count Schomberg, by the daughter of lord Dudley, and born in 1608. He served first in the army of the United Provinces; but in 1650 retired to France, where he was esteemed next to Conde and Turenne. In 1660 he visited England, from whence he proceeded to Portugal, where he was created a grandee, and obtained a pension. On his return to France, he commanded in Flanders, and obliged the prince of Orange to raise the siege of Maestricht, for which he was made a marshal. On the revocation of the edict of Nantes, he went again to Portugal; but being obliged to quit the kingdom by the inquisition, he removed to Holland, and afterwards entered into the service of the elector of Brandenburg. In 1688 he accompanied the prince of Orange to England; and after the Revolution was

created a duke, with which title he received a grant of one hundred thousand pounds. In 1689 he commanded in Ireland, where he was killed at the battle of the Boyne, July 1, 1690.

SCILLY Islands, situated at the western extremity of the English channel. During the civil wars of Charles I. they became of considerable importance. In 1645 they afforded an asylum to prince Charles, at which period sir John Grenville was governor: he held them for the king; but was at length obliged to surrender them to the parliamentary troops.

SCIPIO, a celebrated family at Rome who obtained the greatest honours in the republic. The name seems to be derived from scipio, which signifies a stick, because one of the family had conducted his blind father, and had been to him as a stick. The Scipios were a branch of the Cornelian family.

SCIPIO, (Cn.) surnamed Asina, was consul A. U. C. 494 & 506. He was conquered in his first consulship in a naval battle, and lost 17 ships. The following year he took Aleria, in Corsica, and defeated Hanno, the Carthaginian general, in Sardinia. He also took 300 of the enemy's ships, and the city of Panormum in Sicily. He was father to Publius and Cneus Scipio. Publius, in the beginning of the second Punic war, was sent with an army to Spain to oppose Hannibal; but when he heard that his enemy had passed over into Italy, he attempted by his quick marches and secret evolutions to stop his progress. He was conquered by Hannibal near the Ticinus, where he nearly lost his life, had not his son, who was afterwards surnamed Africanus, courageously defended him. He again passed into Spain, where he obtained some memorable victories over the Carthaginians, and the inhabitants of the country. His brother Cneus shared the supreme command with him, but their great confidence proved their ruin. They separated their armies, and soon after Publius was furiously attacked by the two Andrubals and Mago, who commanded the Carthaginian armies. The forces of Publius were too few to resist with success the three Carthaginian generals. The Romans were cut to pieces, and their commander was left on the field

HISTORY.

of battle. No sooner had the enemy obtained this victory than they immediately marched to meet Cneus Scipio, whom the revolt of 30,000 Celtiberians had weakened and alarmed. The general, who was already apprized of his brother's death, secured an eminence, where he was soon surrounded on all sides. After desperate acts of valour he was left among the slain, or, according to some, he fled into a tower, where he was burnt with some of his friends by the victorious enemy.

SCIPIO (PUBLIUS CORNELIUS,) surnamed Africanus, was son of Publius Scipio, who was killed in Spain. He first distinguished himself at the battle of Ticinus, where he saved his father's life by deeds of unexamined valour and boldness. The battle of Cannæ, which proved so fatal to the Roman arms, instead of disheartening Scipio, raised his expectations, and he no sooner heard that some of his desperate countrymen wished to abandon Italy, and to fly from the insolence of the conqueror, than with his sword in his hand, and by his firmness and example, he obliged them to swear eternal fidelity to Rome, and to put to immediate death the first man who attempted to retire from his country. It was soon known how able he was to be at the head of an army; the various nations of Spain were conquered, and in four years the Carthaginians were banished from that part of the continent; the whole province became tributary to Rome; new Carthage submitted in one day, and in a battle 54,000 of the enemy were left dead on the field. After these signal victories, Scipio was recalled to Rome, which still trembled at the continual alarms of Hannibal, who was at her gates. The conqueror of the Carthaginians in Spain was looked upon as a proper general to encounter Hannibal in Italy; but Scipio opposed the measures which his countrymen wished to pursue, and he declared in the senate that if Hannibal was to be conquered he must be conquered in Africa. These bold measures were immediately adopted, though opposed by the cloquence, age, and experience of the great Fabius, and Scipio was empowered to conduct the war on the coasts of Africa. With the dignity of consul, he embarked for Carthage. Hannibal, who was victorious at the

gates of Rome, was instantly recalled to defend the walls of his country, and the two greatest generals of the age met each other in the field. Terms of accommodation were proposed; but in the parley which the two commanders had together, nothing satisfactory was offered, and while the one enlarged on the vicissitudes of human affairs, the other wished to dictate like a conqueror, and recommended the decision of the controversy to the sword. The celebrated battle was fought near Zama, and both generals displayed their military knowledge in drawing up their armies and in choosing their ground. Their courage and intrepidity were not less conspicuous in charging the enemy; a thousand acts of valour were performed on both sides, and though the Carthaginians fought in their own defence, and the Romans for fame and glory, yet the conqueror of Italy was vanquished. About 20,000 Carthaginians were slain, and the same number made prisoners of war, B. C. 202. Only 2000 of the Romans were killed. This battle was decisive; the Carthaginians sued for peace, which Scipio at last granted on the most severe and humiliating terms. The conqueror after this returned to Rome, where he was received with the most unbounded applause, honoured with a triumph, and dignified with the appellation of Africanus. Here he enjoyed for some time the tranquillity and the honours which his exploits merited, but in him also as in other great men, fortune showed herself inconstant. Scipio offended the populace in wishing to distinguish the senators from the rest of the people at the public exhibitions; and when he canvassed for the consulship for two of his friends, he had the mortification to see his application slighted; and the honours which he claimed, bestowed on a man of no character, and recommended by neither abilities nor meritorious actions. He retired from Rome, no longer to be a spectator of the ingratitude of his countrymen, and in the capacity of lieutenant he accompanied his brother against Antiochus, king of Syria. In this expedition his arms were attended with usual success, and the Asiatic monarch submitted to the conditions which the conquerors dictated. At his return to Rome, Afri-

enemies still unabated. Cato, his inveterate rival, raised seditions against him, and the Petilli, two tribunes of the people, accused the conqueror of Hannibal of extortion in the provinces of Asia, and of living in an indolent and luxurious manner. Scipio condescended to answer to the accusation of his calumniators; the first day was spent in hearing the different charges, but when he again appeared on the second day of his trial, the accused interrupted his judges, and exclaimed, "Tribunes and fellow-citizens, on this day, this very day, did I conquer Hannibal and the Carthaginians: come, therefore, with me, Romans; let us go to the capitol, and there return our thanks to the immortal gods for the victories which have attended our arms." These words had the desired effect; the tribes, and all the assembly followed Scipio, the court was deserted, and the tribunes were left alone in the seat of judgment. Yet when this memorable day was past and forgotten, Africanus was a third time summoned to appear; but he had fled before the impending storm, and retired to his country-house at Liternum. The accusation was therefore stopped, and the accusers silenced, when one of the tribunes, formerly distinguished for his malevolence against Scipio, rose to defend him, and declared in the assembly, that it reflected the highest disgrace on the Roman people, that the conqueror of Hannibal should become the sport of the populace, and be exposed to the malice and envy of disappointed ambition. Some time after Scipio died in the place of his retreat, about 184 years before Christ, in the 48th year of his age; and so great an aversion did he express, as he expired, for the depravity of the Romans, and the ingratitude of their senators, that he ordered his bones not to be conveyed to Rome. They were accordingly inhumated at Liternum, where his wife Emilia, the daughter of Paulus Æmilius, who fell at the battle of Cannæ, raised a mausoleum on his tomb, and placed upon it his statue, with that of the poet Ennius, who had been the companion of his peace and of his retirement.

SCIPIO (LUCIUS CORNELIUS,) surnamed Asiaticus, accompanied his brother Africanus in his expeditions

in Spain and Africa. He was rewarded with the consulship, A. U. C. 564, for his services to the state, and he was empowered to attack Antiochus, king of Syria, who had declared war against the Romans. Lucius was accompanied in this campaign by his brother Africanus; and by his own valour, and by the advice of the conqueror of Hannibal, he soon routed the enemy, and in a battle near the city of Sardes he killed 50,000 foot and 4000 horse. Peace was soon after settled by the submission of Antiochus, and the conqueror, at his return home, obtained a triumph, and the surname of Asiaticus. He did not, however, long enjoy his prosperity; Cato, after the death of Africanus, turned his fury against Asiaticus, and the two Petilli, his devoted favourites, presented a petition to the people, in which they prayed that an enquiry might be made to know what money had been received from Antiochus and his allies. The petition was instantly received, and Asiaticus, charged to have suffered himself to be corrupted by Antiochus, was summoned to appear before the tribunal of Terentius Culeo, who was on this occasion created prætor. The judge, who was an inveterate enemy to the family of the Scipios, soon found Asiaticus, with his two lieutenants and his questor, guilty of having received, the first 6,000 pounds weight of gold, and 480 pounds weight of silver, and the others nearly an equal sum, from the monarch against whom, in the name of the Roman people, they were enjoined to make war. Immediately they were condemned to pay large fines; but while the others gave security, Scipio declared that he had accounted to the public for all the money which he had brought from Asia, and therefore that he was innocent. For this obstinacy Scipio was dragged to prison, but his cousin Naisica pleaded his cause before the people, and the prætor instantly ordered the goods of the prisoner to be seized and confiscated. The sentence was executed, but the effects of Scipio were insufficient to pay the fine, and it was the greatest justification of his innocence, that whatever was found in his house had never been in the possession of Antiochus or his subjects. This, however, did not totally

liberate him; he was reduced to poverty, and refused to accept the offer of his friends and of his clients. Some time after he was appointed to settle the disputes between Eumenes and Seleucus, and at his return the Romans, ashamed of their severity towards him, rewarded his merit with such uncommon liberality, that Asiaticus was enabled to celebrate games in honour of his victory over Antiochus, for ten successive days, at his own expence.

SCIPIO NASICA was son of Cneus Scipio, and cousin to Scipio Africanus. He was refused the consulship, though supported by the interest and the fame of the conqueror of Hannibal; but he afterwards obtained it, and in that honourable office conquered the Boii, and gained a triumph. He was also successful in an expedition which he undertook in Spain. When the statue of Cybele was brought to Rome from Phrygia, the Roman senate delegated one of their body, who was the most remarkable for the purity of his manners and the innocence of his life, to go and meet the goddess in the harbour of Ostia. Nasica was the object of their choice, and as such he was enjoined to bring the statue of the goddess to Rome with the greatest pomp and solemnity. Nasica also distinguished himself by the active part which he took in confuting the accusations laid against the two Scipios, Africanus and Asiaticus. There was also another of the same name, who distinguished himself by his enmity against the Gracchi, to whom he was nearly related.

SCIPIO, (Publ. Æmilianus,) son of Paulus, the conqueror of Perseus, was adopted by the son of Scipio Africanus. Æmilianus first appeared in the Roman armies under his father, and afterwards distinguished himself as a legionary tribune in the Spanish provinces, where he killed a Spaniard of gigantic stature, and obtained a mural crown at the siege of Intercatia. He passed into Africa to demand a reinforcement from king Masinissa, the ally of Rome, and he was the spectator of a long and bloody battle which was fought between that monarch and the Carthaginians, and which soon produced the third Punic war. Some time after, Æmilianus was made edile, and next appointed consul, though

under the age required for that important office. He was empowered to finish the war with Carthage, and as he was permitted by the senate to choose his colleague, he took with him his friend Lælius, whose father, of the same name, had formerly enjoyed the confidence and shared the victories of the first Africanus. The siege of Carthage was already begun, but the operations of the Romans were not continued with vigour. Scipio had no sooner appeared before the walls of the enemy, than every communication with the land was cut off, and that they might not have the command of the sea, a stupendous mole was thrown across the harbour, with immense labour and expence. This, which might have disheartened the most active enemy, rendered the Carthaginians more eager in the cause of freedom and independence. All the inhabitants, without distinction of rank, age, or sex, employed themselves without cessation to dig another harbour, and to build and equip another fleet. In a short time, in spite of the vigilance and activity of Æmilianus, the Romans were astonished to see another harbour formed, and 50 gallees suddenly issuing under sail, ready for the engagement. This unexpected fleet, by immediately attacking the Roman ships, might have gained the victory; but the delay of the Carthaginians proved fatal to their cause, and the enemy had sufficient time to prepare themselves. Scipio soon got the possession of a small eminence in the harbour; and, by the success of his subsequent operations, he broke open one of the gates of the city, and entered the streets, where he made his way by fire and sword. The surrender of above 50,000 men was followed by the reduction of the citadel, and the total submission of Carthage, B. C. 147. The captive city was set on fire; and though Scipio was obliged to demolish its very walls, to obey the orders of the Romans, yet he wept bitterly over the melancholy and tragical scene; and in bewailing the miseries of Carthage, he expressed his fears lest Rome, in her turn, in some future age, should exhibit such a dreadful conflagration. The return of Æmilianus to Rome was that of another conqueror of Hannibal, and like him he was honoured with a magnificent

triumph, and received the surname of *Africanus*. He was chosen consul a second time, and appointed to finish the war which the Romans had hitherto carried on without success or vigorous exertions, against Numantia. The fall of Numantia was more noble than that of the capital of Africa, and the conqueror of Carthage obtained the victory only when the enemies had been consumed by famine or by self-destruction, B. C. 133. From his conquests in Spain, *Æmillanus* was honoured with a second triumph, and with the surname of *Numantinus*. Yet his popularity was short; and by telling the people that the murder of their favourite, his brother-in-law, *Gracchus*, was lawful, since he was turbulent, and inimical to the peace of the republic, Scipio incurred the displeasure of the tribunes, and was received with hisses. His authority for a moment quelled their sedition, when he reproached them for their cowardice, and exclaimed, "Factionous wretches, do you think that your clamours can intimidate me; me, whom the fury of your enemies never daunted? Is this the gratitude that you owe to my father *Paulus*, who conquered *Macedonia*, and to me? Without my family, you were slaves. Is this the respect you owe to your deliverers? Is this your affection?" This firmness silenced the murmurs of the assembly, and some time after, Scipio retired from the clamours of Rome to *Caleta*, where, with his friend *Laellus*, he passed the rest of his time in innocent pleasure and amusement, in diversions which had pleased them when children. This active part of Scipio was seen with pleasure by the friends of the republic, and not only the senate, but also the citizens, the Latins, and neighbouring states, conducted their illustrious friend and patron to his house. It seemed also the universal wish that the troubles might be quieted by the election of Scipio to the dictatorship; and many presumed that that honour would be on the morrow conferred upon him. In this, however, the expectations of Rome were frustrated: Scipio was found dead in his bed, to the astonishment of the world; and those who inquired for the causes of this sudden death, perceived violent marks on his neck, and con-

cluded that he had been strangled, B. C. 129.

SCLAVONIA, a province in the south of the Austrian empire. It formed, under the Romans, a part of the ancient *Illyria*, and derived its present name from a tribe of *Slavi*, or *Slavi*, who settled here in the 6th century. It was overrun by the Turks, and continued in their possession about 170 years. The Franks, in their military successes before and during the age of *Charlemagne*, often encountered *Slavonic* tribes, and, carrying them into captivity, the name of *Slave*, or *Elave*, became synonymous with captive.

SCOTLAND. This part of the island of Great Britain was anciently called *Caledonia*, and the inhabitants *Caledones*, who were of Celtic original, and probably those tribes of the Britons, who had wandered the farthest northward. In the fourth century we find them distinguished into *Scots* and *Picts*. In 85, *Agricola*, the Roman general, attempted to conquer this part of this island, but did not effect the conquest of more than that part which is south of the *Forth* and *Clyde*. In 121 *Hadrian* relinquished more, building a wall from the *Solway Frith* to the river *Tyne*. In 144 the Romans extended their boundaries again as far as the wall of *Agricola*; but *Severus*, though he invaded the whole country in 208, thought proper to adhere to the boundary of *Hadrian*. Upon the Romans quitting this island in 410, the *Scots* regained the possession of all that is now called *Scotland*, and made excursions very far southward, though without retaining their conquests. About 839 the *Picts* are said to have been entirely reduced by *Kennet II.*, the first sole king of all *Scotland*. *Donald*, brother to *Kennet*, reigned four years, and was succeeded by *Constantine*, his nephew, son of *Kennet*, who being made prisoner by a party of *Danes*, was beheaded by the enemy in a cave, afterwards called the *Devil's Cave*. He was succeeded by his brother *Eth*, who, after a reign of one year, was followed by *Gregory*, surnamed the Great. The king of *Ireland* being a minor, his authority was usurped by two factious noblemen. *Gregory* therefore passed over

HISTORY.

into that country as guardian of the young king, and after appointing a regency, he returned into Scotland, where he finished a life of action and of glory at Dun-o-deer, in the Garioch, in 892, and was buried with his ancestors at Icolmkill. Donald VI., the worthy successor of Gregory, rendered considerable service to Alfred, king of England, in his wars with the Danes. He was succeeded by Constantine III., who, departing from the policy of his predecessors, entered into an alliance with the Danes, in the hope of being able to extend his dominions by their help. But he was disappointed. After failing in an expedition against England, he resigned his crown to Malcolm, and spent the remainder of his life in the solitude of the cloister. The connection of the English and Scots against the Danes, was continued under Indulf, who defeated these freebooters in many bloody engagements. His successor Duff resigned his principality of Cumberland to Colin, the son of Indulf; but the latter, not contented with his domain, excited various insurrections in the kingdom, and at last Duff was either slain or driven into exile. Colin indulged in the greatest licentiousness, and was succeeded by Kennet III., the son of Malcolm, who vigorously prosecuted the war against the Britons of Strathclyd, till at last their principality was finally subjected to the dominion of the Scots. However, Kennet was assassinated, and the throne was usurped by Constantine the Bold, who fell in an engagement with Grime, the son of Duff, in 993. Grime, regardless of the claims of Malcolm, son of Kennet, and prince of Cumberland, caused himself to be crowned at Scoone, but was defeated and slain after a reign of eight years. In 1004, Malcolm having convened the nobility, was acknowledged sovereign, and invested with the royal dignity. He defeated in three different engagements the Danes, who had effected a settlement in Cambria; and these successes gained him the title of the most victorious king. He died after a reign of thirty years, and left no issue to succeed him except Duncan, grandson by his daughter Beatrix. Duncan was cut off by the hand of

year of his reign, and the throne was usurped by his murderer Macbeth. Consciousness of guilt kept alive in his breast a jealousy which prompted him to repeated acts of cruelty; and he put to death Mac Gill, then Banquo, the most powerful man in his dominions, with the wife and infant children of Macduff, who saved his own life by flying into England. Macduff applied himself to Malcolm, son of the late king Duncan, who on the death of his father had escaped to his principality of Cumberland; and having obtained assistance from England, they made war on the usurper, whom they soon drove to the most inaccessible parts of the Highlands, where, after defending himself for the space of two years, he was at last killed in a sally by Macduff. Malcolm mounted the throne of his fathers; he married Margaret of England, who had fled to Scotland for safety of her life. Malcolm engaged in war with the king of England, and after laying waste the open country, besieged Alnwick, in Northumberland. According to Scottish historians, the place was so closely pressed, that a knight came out of the castle with its keys on the point of a spear, and pretending that he wished to lay them at Malcolm's feet, that prince advanced to receive them, and was by the traitor run through the eye, and killed on the spot. They also add, that the prince Edward was mortally wounded in endeavouring to avenge his father's death. According to English historians, Malcolm and his son fell in battle, and their army suffered a total rout. Margaret, who was at this time sick at Edinburgh, being informed of the death of her husband and son, made confession, received the sacrament, gave her dying blessing and advice to her children, and expired. Malcolm and Margaret left six children; Edmund, Edgar, Alexander, David, Matilda, and Mary. Another of Malcolm's sons was of illegitimate birth, and was called Duncan. Donald, the brother of Malcolm, presented himself as a candidate for the crown; but the illegitimate Duncan advanced his pretensions with great firmness, and obliged his father's brother to relinquish. In order to support himself on the throne, Duncan called in the Norwegians, re-

nouncing in their favour all claims on the Orkney and Shetland isles. But those barbarians rendering themselves more odious than ever the English had been, the nobles renounced their allegiance to Duncan, and placed on the throne Malcolm's eldest son Edgar, who had returned to Scotland with his two brothers, and who, after a reign of eight years, which was disturbed neither by domestic conspiracy nor foreign wars, died in the year 1107. He was succeeded by his brother Alexander, who being also destitute of progeny, left the crown to David, the last of Malcolm's sons. Immediately on his accession a contest which had for some time prevailed, concerning the independence of the Scottish church, was renewed. In an advanced age David lost his only son Henry, but, before his death, which happened in the year 1153, he caused his grandson Malcolm to be proclaimed and acknowledged heir to his crown. Malcolm IV., who was only twelve or fifteen years of age at the time of his accession, ceded the counties of Northumberland and Cumberland to Henry II. of England, did homage for the earldom of Huntingdon, and meeting that monarch at Carlisle, followed him in his expedition against Toulouse in France. On his return he was continually disturbed with insurrections, and was saved only by the intervention of the clergy. He died unmarried at the age of twenty-five years. William was crowned immediately after his brother's death, in 1165, and entering into a confederacy against Henry king of England, was defeated and taken prisoner. William accepted his liberation on the most humiliating terms; five castles being delivered up to the English as sureties, and the king's brother and twenty nobles as hostages. The accession of Richard to the English throne was, however, fortunate for Scotland. He released William and his kingdom from that feudal dependency on England, which had been unjustly extorted from him during his captivity, and engaged to restore his fortresses. William reigned forty-nine years, and died in the seventy-second year of his age. His son and successor, Alexander II. settled by treaty the claims which had been the subjects of contest between the two

crowns, and procured for this prince a reign as peaceable as could be expected in a nation full of turbulent nobles. Alexander III. was only nine years of age when he was crowned. Ambassadors were sent to London to demand Henry's daughter in marriage; and this being easily granted, both courts met at York, and the ceremony was performed with great pomp. Alexander did homage to Henry for his English possessions, which the latter confirmed by a charter. The king saw himself bereft of all his children, except Margaret, who was married to Eric of Norway; and in the third year after her marriage she also died, leaving only an infant daughter, on whom the crown of Scotland was settled. Alexander was thrown from his horse over a precipice, and perished in the fall. Edward, who was one of the most valiant and politic monarchs that ever sat on the English throne, being ambitious of adding Scotland to the dominions of his crown, applied to the court of Rome to authorise a marriage between his son and his grand-niece, and having gained the consent of Eric, he intrigued with the Scottish nobles to obtain their concurrence. Every thing seemed to favour his views, when the child was taken ill on the passage from Norway, and died at Orkney. The Scots now saw fall before them the unhappy prospect of a disputed succession, war with England, and intestine discord. In order, therefore, to avoid the miseries of a civil war, both parties made choice of Edward as umpire, and agreed to acquiesce in his decree. The chief competitors for the crown were Bruce and Baliol, both descendants of David, earl of Huntingdon, who was brother to the two kings, Malcolm and William. Edward advanced with a great army to the frontiers of Scotland, whither he invited the nobility and all the competitors to attend him. However, in the character of umpire, the king of England arrogated to himself the feudal sovereignty of the kingdom, compelled all the barons to swear allegiance to him, and took possession of all the fortresses with his troops. One hundred and four commissioners being appointed to examine the several claims, gave their verdict in favor of Baliol, who was crowned accord-

HISTORY.

ingly in 1292. But Baliol renouncing his allegiance soon after, the indignant Edward invaded Scotland with an immense army, and compelled this weak prince to submit and make a solemn and irrevocable resignation of his crown into the hands of the king of England. National animosities, and the insolence of victory, conspired to render the English government intolerable to the Scots, who bore with the utmost impatience a yoke, to which, from the earliest period of their monarchy, they had always been unaccustomed. In 1296, Sir William Wallace, whose magnanimous soul could no longer brook to see his country torn by factions, deserted by its chiefs, and oppressed by foreigners, bravely stepped forth to re-unite the friends of liberty under his banner, and undertook several enterprises, all of which added to the glory of his name, and to the number of his followers, till at length he obtained a numerous army. The Scots were now forced to the cruel expedient of putting to the sword every Englishman they found in arms. King Edward, who was then in France, ordered the earl of Surrey to suppress this daring insurrection; and lord Henry Percy marched at the head of an army of forty thousand men against Wallace. The latter retreated northward, where he was joined by new adherents; and when Warrene advanced to Stirling, he found Wallace encamped in excellent order on the opposite bank of the Forth. A desperate engagement ensued, in which the English were utterly defeated, and obliged to evacuate the kingdom. This success procured Wallace the title of Guardian; but he still acknowledged the captive king, Baliol. However, the cause was ruined by the jealousy of the nobles. The English monarch returned from France, and marched into Scotland at the head of seventy thousand men. Wallace now voluntarily resigned his authority, and retained only one corps that refused to fight under any other leader. The English army came up with the enemy near Falkirk, and defeated and dispersed the Scots with great slaughter. At length, with much difficulty, Edward completed the conquest of Scotland, without being able to seize or subdue the patriotic Wallace. Disappointed in all his schemes for that pur-

pose, he did not disdain to stoop to treachery; and Sir William was basely betrayed by a traitor, and sent to London, where he was tried and barbarously put to death as a rebel. Robert Bruce, the restorer of the Scottish throne, and father of a new race of kings, was the grandson of the competitor with Baliol for the crown. Having resolved to quit the court of Edward, to whom his father and grandfather had meanly sworn allegiance, he contrived to escape, and to join the Scotch patriots of Lochmaben. After collecting what forces he could, in 1306, he attacked the English, who were unprepared, and having gained possession of several castles, he was solemnly crowned at Scone. King Edward immediately dispatched Aymer de Valence into Scotland, who, falling in with Bruce at Methven, attacked him, and notwithstanding a most vigorous resistance, totally defeated the Scottish army. Bruce fled almost unattended, to the western isles, where he wandered about for some time in distress; but Edward dying on his way to Scotland, Bruce was delivered from a powerful enemy, and his party daily increased. In 1313 Edward II. assembled his whole forces, amounting, according to the Scottish historians, to one hundred thousand men. Robert's army did not exceed thirty thousand men, but they were men of tried valour. He encamped beside a rivulet called Bannockburn, near Stirling, the castle of which had been long besieged by the Scots. Edward being determined to relieve it, the two armies commenced an engagement, which lasted for a long time, and in which both sides displayed great bravery. However, at length, the English betook themselves to flight, and were pursued by the Scots, who made a great slaughter. King Edward with difficulty escaped to Dunbar: the flower of his nobility fell in this battle, and the liberty of Scotland triumphed. However, it was not till the deposition of Edward that Robert Bruce wrested from England, a solemn renunciation of all claims on Scotland, and secured a peace by marrying his son David to Joan, sister to Edward III. Thus ended the glorious conflict of Robert for the independence of his crown, after a reign of 24 years. During the minority of David, Edward,

son of John Balliol, being supported by the English, invaded Scotland in 1332, was proclaimed king, and, like his father, did homage as vassal of England. David, with his queen, found refuge in France; but Edward Balliol dismembering his kingdom in favour of the English, lost the affections of his subjects. David returning from France, repulsed Balliol, and was himself taken prisoner near Durham. Balliol resigned his claims to Edward, who, soon after, acknowledged David as king, and restored him to liberty on condition of his paying a great ransom. David, leaving no progeny, was succeeded by Robert II. grandson of Bruce, and the first king of the Stuart family. In 1371, the war with England was renewed, and continued with little interruption to the end of this reign. Robert III. refused to do homage for his crown to Henry IV. In 1390, understanding that his eldest son was starved to death by his uncle, the duke of Albany, and wishing to secure his surviving child James, he made him embark for France; but his ill-fated stars threw the prince into the hands of his enemies, and the father fell a prey to his grief, on being told of his son's captivity in the tower of London. James was still detained in the hands of king Henry; and the regency of the duke of Albany, his uncle, the murderer of his brother, was recognized in Scotland in 1405. After a long captivity he was restored to his kingdom, which he governed thirteen years, when he was barbarously assassinated. New broils attended the minority of James II., who was only seven years old at the time of his accession in 1437. At the age of fourteen the young king assumed the reins of government, but he was soon after killed by the bursting of a cannon at the siege of Roxburgh. James III. succeeded him in 1460. After marrying Margaret of Denmark, he gave himself up to astrology, and through jealousy made away with his own brother, the earl of Mar, while the duke of Albany, the other brother, escaped to France. Being invited to England, now again at war with their northern neighbours, the duke of Albany took the title of Alexander, king of Scotland, by the gift of Edward, and marched to the borders. But

a treaty being concluded, Albany returned to his allegiance, and to his brother's favour. Albany, however, again withdrew to England; and a fresh conspiracy being formed against James, the rebels prevailed on the king's son, the young duke of Rothsay, to head their army. An engagement took place near Bannockburn, in which the rebels were successful, and the king, in his flight, was thrown from his horse, and carried to the first hovel, where he was stabbed to the heart by one of the insurgents. James IV. succeeded his father in 1488. At the instigation of the French court, he rashly entered into a war against Henry VIII. brother of his queen, and, notwithstanding the advice of his best counsellors, led an army into England, where, at the memorable battle of Flodden field, he lost the flower of his nobility and his own life. James V. being only two years old at the death of his father, his mother Margaret, sister to the king of England, was appointed regent and guardian by the will of her husband. The young king assumed the government at the age of thirteen, in 1513, with a council of eight; but he soon shook off the yoke of his council. Henry VIII. having proclaimed war against Scotland, an inroad was planned on the western borders; but James despising and distrusting his nobles, gave the command of the army to a man of less note. This insult provoked the troops, who refused to fight at the Raid of Solway Moss, and ten thousand men laid down their arms before five hundred English, without striking a blow. These sad tidings broke the proud heart of James, who refused from that moment to take any sustenance, and, after languishing some days, expired in the thirty-first year of his age. Mary, queen of Scots, was born a few days before the death of her father. The disasters of her reign began and ended only with her life. At an early age Mary was sent to France, where she was brought up at the court of Henry II., whose eldest son Francis was destined to be her husband. The minority of Mary Stuart was agitated by great disturbances; and the regency was claimed by different competitors as a privilege of blood or family appanage. At length, the

HISTORY

queen abandoned the helm of government to any adventurer who might wish to seize it. The tempests excited by ambition and jealousy, were increased by the gusts of religious fanaticism. Popery struggled against the Reformation with an already evident disadvantage; and the vessel of state, buffeted by those storms, was every moment in imminent danger of sinking. At this critical situation of affairs, Mary returned to assume the sovereignty of her kingdom after the death of Francis II., who had left her a widow at the age of eighteen years. By assuming the title of queen of England on the death of Henry VIII. she excited the jealousy of Elizabeth, who succeeded to the English throne, and who never pardoned her cousin this assertion of her rights. The religious dissensions by which Scotland was divided, were effectually subservient to the views of Elizabeth, who gained the affections of the reformed party, and excited their suspicions against their sovereign, Mary being sprung from the blood of the Guises, and niece to the cardinal de Lorraine, who was the scourge of the protestants. To their religious and political opinions the young queen could not reconcile herself, and hence arose a decided aversion between the sovereign and her subjects. Her council induced her to re-marry, and she gave her hand to her cousin Henry lord Darnley. This marriage displeased Elizabeth. Soon after Mary's marriage with Darnley, she became disgusted with his deceit and plausibility. Darnley, thinking this change of disposition was occasioned by her having conceived a passion for some other man, unjustly suspected David Rizzio, an Italian musician. However, he soon found a set of willing accomplices in the execution of vengeance against his wife; and, accordingly, one evening, while the queen was at supper with the countess of Arayle, Henry conducted the confederates by a private staircase into the queen's apartment, where they seized Rizzio, and after dragging him into an adjoining room, dispatched him with fifty-six wounds. Nothing could exceed the grief and indignation of Mary on this occasion; but, finding herself entirely in the power of the conspirators, she was obliged to dis-

semble. On the 19th of June, 1566, at Edinburgh Castle, she bore her only son, afterwards James VI. of Scotland, and I. of England. At length, after a series of tragical disasters, Mary placed herself in the hands of Elizabeth, by whose order she was executed at Fotheringay castle in 1587. (See *Mary Queen of Scots*.) All the rights and pretensions of Mary now devolved upon her son, who was considered, as well by catholics as protestants, as the presumptive heir to the throne of England, and the rightful sovereign of Scotland. The pacific disposition and the clemency of James towards offenders, multiplied crimes of all kinds, and encouraged such acts of violence as brought his government under contempt. All was fomented by the intrigues of Elizabeth, who still strove to retain James weak and mean, by keeping his affairs continually embroiled. On the death of Elizabeth, in 1603, the lords of the privy council proclaimed James king of England. Before this monarch left Scotland to take possession of his new kingdom, he had with great zeal laboured to civilize the northern and western Highlands. He was himself a scholar; and to his love of learning the Scots are indebted for the parochial schools, which afford the common people so much advantage in point of education, over other countries. He encouraged trade and the fisheries, and greatly promoted the industry of his subjects. In 1603, he took his farewell. By means of the king's accession to the English throne, the regal power in Scotland acquired additional strength; and James attempted to avail himself of this circumstance for the union of both the national churches and the kingdom into one. After a reign and life of nearly 59 years, James was seized with his last illness, which some affirm to have been caused by poison. Charles I. entered Edinburgh with great magnificence, and was crowned at Holyrood-house. In the Parliament which was now summoned, the lords of the articles brought in a bill for confirming the royal prerogative, together with the power granted to the late king to prescribe apparel to churchmen with their own consent. This unpopular, and indeed frivolous and vexatious bill, passed through Parliament, and

received the royal sanction; and under Laud, archbishop of Canterbury, and Spotswood the historian, archbishop of St. Andrews, the king proceeded to introduce a book of liturgy into the public worship of the Scottish churches. These measures excited the most general discontent, and produced the most violent commotions. A civil war at length became unavoidable; and the covenanters prepared for it with vigour and resolution. They received arms, ammunition, and money, from France, and other countries; and no regularly established commonwealth could take wiser measures. Lesley, a soldier of experience and ability, the earl of Montrose, a youth of heroic genius, with other leaders of the party, all of them men of sense and resolution, conducted the military affairs. After seizing and fortifying the most important places of strength in the kingdom, they invaded England, and compelled the royal forces to retreat to York. At this period, the English rebels courted a closer union with their Scottish friends, and agreed to receive the solemn league and covenant, to preserve the reformed religion established in the church of Scotland, and to reform England and Ireland, according to the word of God, and the example of the purest churches. Accordingly, a subsidiary army of 20,000 Scots hastened to join Lord Fairfax, and effectually assisted him in reducing the city of York. While the king's affairs declined in England, the brave Montrose had left the Scottish army, and raised the royal standard in the north. This active nobleman, having raised a supply of 1200 troops from Ireland, hastened to take the command of this auxiliary force, and several more flocked to his standard. He attacked and defeated a party of the covenanters, 6000 in number, under Tullibardine; and Perth opened its gates to the victor, and was laid under contribution. At Aberdeen, Montrose gained a second victory over the troops under Lord Burleigh, and laid waste the country of Argyle. Montrose gained in succession the victories of Auldearn, Alford and Kilsyth, but his whole army was destroyed at Philiphaugh by the troops under Sir David Lesley, and he was never able afterwards to bring a formidable force into the field,

notwithstanding all the efforts he could make. The fortunes of Charles being now ruined in England, he was reduced to the desperate expedient of seeking refuge in the heart of an army which was in open rebellion against him. The immediate consequences of this fatal step were orders expedited to his adherents to lay down their arms. Montrose obeyed, and retired to France. The English parliament demanding of the Scottish army the person of the king, they preferred delivering him up rather than go to war in his defence. The kingdom was, however, divided into two parties, and the duke of Hamilton and the majority in parliament, in opposition to the church, succeeded in raising a numerous army to support the king against Cromwell and his adherents, who appeared to entertain designs totally hostile both to the king's person and government: with this army they set forward to invade England, and to restore the king to his ancient rights. But the violent party considered it the height of impiety to fight for an uncovenanted king. The Scotch troops, not daring to unite themselves with the English royalists who had refused the covenant, both armies were easily destroyed by Cromwell, who, after exercising the severest vengeance against the friends of Charles in Scotland, returned in triumph to England, and brought Charles to public trial and execution. The covenanters now declared for the young king, Charles II., then in Holland, on condition of his becoming the pupil of Presbyterianism, and taking the covenant. Montrose was dispatched to the Orkneys, to make an attempt for the king's restoration on better terms; but being attacked by a much superior force, he was defeated, and put to death in 1650. With him were executed Spotswood, Hay, Sibbald, and Ury of Urry, all friends to the royal cause. Charles II. now sailed from Holland for the Scottish coast, and threw himself entirely into the hands of the covenanters, who required him to sign the covenant, and exhorted him to be faithful to that holy confederacy. Cromwell marched into Scotland against the now royal covenanters, whom he attacked, and at Dunbar defeated. Notwithstanding this defeat, the royalists in Scotland in-

HISTORY.

ceased. Charles was crowned at Scone on the 1st of January, 1651; but he was obliged to take the covenant, and to undergo other mortifications. Cromwell, however, succeeded in an attempt to cut off the royalists from all their communication with the north and the Highlands; and when they invaded England, defeated them at Worcester. Charles escaped, and at last took shipping from the coast of Sussex, and arrived safe at Feschamp in Normandy. After the restoration of Charles II. in 1660, the Parliament was opened with unusual splendour at Edinburgh; and in the proceedings of this assembly, the royal prerogative was exalted to a pitch of despotism. Deprived at last of public worship, at length the persecuted Presbyterians rose in open rebellion. On the Pentland hills they were met by the king's forces, under Dalziel, and were routed with considerable slaughter, at the first onset. Commotions and insurrections multiplied during the whole reign of Charles II., who attempted, sometimes by gentle means, and sometimes by acts of severity, to crush Presbyterianism, and to induce the people to substitute another form of church government. Though the people of England, as well as the Parliament of Scotland, had made a surrender to the crown of all their constitutional rights, 1685, the history of the reign of James VII. proves how little dependence is to be placed on those professions. James was not ignorant of the intrigues and ambition of his son-in-law, the prince of Orange, with whom Monmouth, Argyle, Dalrymple, afterwards earl of Stair, Burnet, soon to be bishop of Sarum, and the English and Scotch exiles, found refuge. The insurrections occasioned by Argyle and Monmouth widened the breach between the unfortunate monarch and his disaffected subjects. James proposed to his Scottish Parliament a relaxation of the penal laws against the Roman Catholics; but the proposal was received with such coldness, that the chancellor thought it prudent to drop the bill entirely. However, the court issued declarations in favour of Presbyterians, of Quakers, of Roman Catholics, and at last "suspended all penal and sanguinary laws for non-conformity to the religion established

by law." The Presbyterians of Edinburgh, and the ministers all over Scotland, gladly accepted of this toleration, and thanked the king for his protection. In 1688, James, finding himself abandoned by his friends, fled; and his constrained flight was pronounced an abdication of the throne of Scotland. Indifferent as to modes of religion, William treated with Presbyterians as well as Episcopalians. The throne was declared vacant by the convention; and William accepted of the crown tendered to him by a deputation from the states, and, with his spouse, took a coronation oath. By a majority of the votes in Parliament, William was reluctantly prevailed on to repeal the constitution of the lords of articles, to abandon the patronage and the supremacy over the church, and to re-establish Presbytery. William, after a fruitless attempt to gain the chieftains by pecuniary offers, issued a proclamation denouncing military execution against all who should not before the expiration of the year take an oath of fealty to him. William dying in 1702, the accession of queen Anne gave new hopes to the pretender, son of the late king James, and his adherents. William had never dissolved the Convention Parliament. The members of this Parliament assembled, and empowered the queen to nominate commissioners for treating of an union. The commissioners repaired to London, to treat with those appointed in England. At length, the whole of the articles of the union were completed and signed by all the Scottish commissioners excepting one, who was Lockhart of Carnwarth. Notwithstanding the strong opposition which this measure experienced, on Thursday the 16th of January, 1707, the whole articles of the union were, without any material alteration, approved by a legal majority in Parliament; and the lord high commissioner, touching the act with the sceptre, sanctioned it with that consent of the crown, which was requisite to give it in Scotland the force of a law. The treaty of union, thus finally ratified by the Scottish Parliament, was immediately transmitted to London, where it was equally honoured by the sanction of the Parliament and the royal consent. On the 25th of April, the Scottish Parliament was

SCY

dissolved, never more to be assembled; and the Scots and English were henceforth to be one people.

KINGS OF SCOTLAND.

Fergus I.	B. O.	330
Feritharis	—	306
Mainus	—	290
Dernadilla	—	261
Nothatus	—	233
Reutherus	—	213
Reuthra	—	187
Thereus	—	173
Josina	—	161
Finnanns	—	137
Duratus	—	107
Evenus I.	—	98
Gillus	—	79
Evenus H.	—	77
Ederus	—	60
Evenus III.	—	19
Metellanus	—	5
Caractacus	A. D.	32
Corbred I.	—	54
Dardanus	—	70
Corbred II.	—	78
Luctacus	—	104
Mogaidus	—	107
Conarus	—	143
Ethodius I.	—	161
Satrael	—	193
Donald I.	—	197
Ethodius II.	—	216
Aethro	—	230
Nathaloens	—	242
Findocus	—	252
Donald II.	—	262
Donald III.	—	263
Crathilintus	—	277
Finchormarchus	—	320
Romachus	—	368
Angustanus or Æneas	—	371
Fethelmachus	—	373
Eugenius I.	—	376
Fergus H.	—	413
Eugenius II.	—	419
Dougard	—	451
Constantine I.	—	457
Congale I.	—	479
Goran I.	—	501
Eugenius III.	—	545
Congale II.	—	548
Kinnatellus	—	568
Aidan	—	569
Kennet I.	—	604
Eugenius IV.	—	606
Ferchard II.	—	622
Donald IV.	—	632
Ferchard I.	—	646
Maldwin	—	664
Eugenius V.	—	684
Eugenius VI.	—	687

Amberchelet	A. D.	687
Eugenius VII.	—	696
Mordae	—	718
Etfinius	—	730
Eugenius VIII.	—	761
Fergus III.	—	763
Solvatus	—	766
Achainus	—	787
Congale III.	—	819
Dongal	—	834
Alpin	—	831
Kennet II.	—	834
Donald V.	—	854
Constantine II.	—	858
Ethus	—	874
Gregory	—	876
Donald VI.	—	892
Constantina III.	—	903
Malcolm I.	—	939
Indulphus	—	959
Duphus	—	968
Cullenus	—	973
Kennet III.	—	973
Constantine IV.	—	994
Grimus	—	996
Malcolm II.	—	1004
Duncan	—	1034
Macbeth	—	1040
Malcolm III.	—	1057
Donald VII.	—	1092
Duncan II.	—	1095
Donald VII. again	—	1095
Interregnum	—	1096
Edgar	—	1097
Alexander I.	—	1107
David I.	—	1121
Malcolm IV.	—	1153
William	—	1165
Alexander II.	—	1214
Alexander III.	—	1240
Interregnum	—	1245
John Balliol	—	1292
Robert I.	—	1306
David II.	—	1329
Edward Balliol	—	1332
David II. again	—	1341
Robert II.	—	1371
John Robert	—	1396
James I.	—	1405
James II.	—	1437
James III.	—	1460
James IV.	—	1488
James V.	—	1513
Mary Stuart	—	1542
James VI.	—	1557

SCYTHIANS, inhabitants of the southern parts of Siberia, north-east of the Caspian Sea, whose tribes have in different ages overrun Asia and Europe. According to the chronicles of Eri, there existed a race of Scythian monarchs during 1011 years; after

HISTORY.

which they moved southward, and occupied Mesopotamia, till then inhabited by an Arab race 293 years, and then extended their conquests over all nations; maintaining their dominion 1809 years, when their empire was divided by Assyrians from the east, who overran Media, Parthia, and Bactria like a mighty flood, about the epoch of the Hebrew deluge, led by Bel, who founded Babylon and the Assyrian empire on the ruins of the Scythian. The same chronicles, if credible, describe Noah as the Scythian chief, who fled to Armenia after his defeat; and Bel, as the Nimrod of the Hebrews. The Scythian empire, by these chronicles, extended from the Indus, where they were called Indo Scythians, to the confines of Europe, where they were called Celto-Scythians: the Scythians, Arabs, and Egyptians, being the most powerful known nations, till the former were lost in the Assyrians; or, according to the Hebrew historians, the people of Ashur. By the same authority we learn, that about 2000, B. C., the Scythians overran Thrace and Greece, founding the kingdoms, Sicyon, Argos, Athens, Corinth, and Thebes; their original irruption into Thessaly giving rise to the fable of the flood of Deucalicon. According to Mr. O'Connor, the chief of the Scythians who conducted the first colony into Thrace was Japan, or Oavan, the son of Jaforth, the son of Ardrer, the same as the Hebrew Noah, who, according to him, was the last supreme chief of the Scythian empire, which Japan left Armenia in the second year of the reign of his brother Og, with a colony called the Og-eag-eis; while another colony landed in the south from Egypt, built Athens, &c., and were called Pelesgoi. Cadmus, a Phœnician, afterwards brought a colony of Sidonian Scythians, and settled in Boeotia, about 1000 B. C. The Pelesgoi settled in Italy, and Saturn conducted another colony from Crete, to which country Evander emigrated in 940, and Æneas, from Troy, in 883. Hence Greece was of Scythian origin, and Italy was peopled with their descendants.

SCYTHES, who is the first king of this nation mentioned in history, is fabled by the Greeks to have been the offspring of Hercules and a monster.

Sagillus is said to have sent his son Panasagorus, to assist the Amazons against Theseus, king of Athens; but the heroines inspiring the prince with disgust, he left them to the mercy of their enemies, by whom they were defeated. Maydes was a warlike prince, under whose conduct the Scythians invaded Media, and held the greater part of Upper Asia in subjection for the space of twenty-eight years. They also made an incursion into the land of the Philistines, and thence marched into Egypt; but Psammetichus, king of that country, prevailed on them to return, and thus saved his dominions from plunder and desolation. Tomyris was a Scythian heroine, whom Cyrus the Great demanded in marriage; but she refusing him, that prince led his army against the Massagetes, who were under her dominion, and lost his life. Jancyrus was a haughty and magnanimous prince, who, when the Persian heralds demanded of him earth and water, sent to Darius a bird, a mouse, a frog, and five arrows, without any farther application. The Persian monarch immediately supposed that this present was sent in token of submission; but Gobrias, who knew the Scythians better than his master, interpreted it to denote, that the Persians must not expect to elude the effects of Scythian valour, unless they could fly like birds, plunge under water like frogs, or bury themselves in the earth like mice. This explanation was soon justified, and the Scythians obtained a signal victory over the Persian army. Saulius is said to have killed Anacharsis, a prince of the blood, for presuming to introduce the nocturnal rites of the mother of the gods into Scythia. Aripithes had a numerous progeny, and in particular a son named Scythos, whose mother had caused him to be instructed in all the Grecian customs. When Scythos, therefore, ascended the throne, he appeared to possess so great a predilection for the effeminate luxuries of the Greeks, that his subjects, irritated at this preference, dethroned him, and elected his brother Octamasades king in his stead. Ariantes is said to have ordered all his soldiers to appear before him, and every one to throw the tip of an arrow into a common heap, which amounted to so great a bulk,

that he caused it to be melted down and cast into a large vessel, as a monument of the transaction. Atheas obtained from Philip, king of Macedonia, considerable succour against an invasion with which he was threatened; and when the enemy, terrified by the preparations of Philip, desisted from their design, he pretended that he owed him no recompence, because a war had not taken place. In consequence of this, an obstinate battle ensued, in which the Scythians were vanquished, and twenty thousand women and children were made prisoners. Philip sent twenty thousand mares into Macedonia.

SEA FIGHTS, remarkable, since Christ.

Alfred defeated 120 Danish ships off Dorsetshire, in 898.

With the French near Sluys, and 400 sail taken, with 30,000 men, 1340.

Eighty French ships taken by the English, 1389.

Off Barbear, where the duke of Bedford took 500 French, and three Genoese vessels, 1416.

Off Sandwich, when the French fleet was taken by the earl of Warwick, Nov. 1449.

In 1549, when 1,000 French were killed.

Near the gulph of Lepanto, between the Christian powers and the Turks, which last lost 25,000 men killed, and 4,000 taken prisoners; and out of 260 vessels, saved only 25, Oct. 7, 1571.

Between the English fleet and the Spanish Armada, 1588.

Off Portsmouth, when Admiral Blake took 11 Dutch men of war, and 30 merchant ships, Feb. 10, 1652.

Off the North Foreland, when the Dutch lost 20 men of war, June 2, 1653.

On the coast of Holland, when they lost 30 men of war and Admiral Tromp was killed, July 29, 1653.

At Cadiz, when the galleons were destroyed by the English, Sept. 1656.

One hundred and thirty of the Bourdeaux fleet destroyed by the duke of York, Dec. 4, 1664.

Off Harwich, when 18 capital Dutch ships were taken and 14 destroyed, June 3, 1665.

The Dutch totally defeated, with the loss of 24 men of war, four admirals, and 4,000 officers and seamen, July 25, 26, 1666.

Five of the Dutch Smyrna fleet, and four East India ships, taken by the English, March 14, 1671-2.

At Southwold bay, when the earl of Sandwich was blown up, and the Dutch defeated by the duke of York, May 28, 1672.

Again, by Prince Rupert, May 28, June 4, and August 11, when the Dutch were defeated, 1673.

In the bay of Tripoli, when the English burnt four men of war of that state, March 4, 1674-5.

Off Beachy-head, when the English and Dutch were defeated by the French, June 30, 1690.

Off La Hogue, when the French fleet was entirely defeated, and 21 large men of war destroyed, May 19, 1692.

Off St. Vincent, when the English and Dutch were defeated by the French, June 16, 1693.

The Vigo fleet taken by the English and Dutch, Oct. 12, 1702.

Between the French and English, when the former entirely relinquished the dominion of the sea to the latter, August 24, 1704.

At Gibraltar, when the French lost five men of war, Nov. 5, 1704.

Off the Lizard, when the English were defeated, Oct. 9, 1707.

Near Carthage, when Admiral Wager destroyed a fleet, May 28, 1708.

French fleet destroyed by Sir George Byng, July 13, 1718.

In the East Indies, when the French retired to Pondicherry, 1747.

Off Cape Finisterre, when the French fleet was taken by Admiral Anson, May 3, 1747.

Off Newfoundland, when Boscawen took two men of war, June 10, 1755.

Off Ushant, when Admiral Hawke took seven men of war of the French, Oct. 14, 1747.

Off Belleisle, when he took 14 sail of victuallers, July 14, 1756.

French beaten off Cape Lagos, by Admiral Boscawen, Aug. 18, 1759.

Off Quiberon Bay, when Hawke defeated the French, Nov. 20, 1759.

On Lake Champlain, where the Provincials were totally destroyed by the British forces, Oct. 11, 1776.

Off Ushant, a drawn battle between Keppel and D'Orvilliers, July 17, 1778.

Off Penobscot, in New England

HISTORY.

when the American fleet was totally destroyed, July 30, 1779.

Near Cape St. Vincent, between Admiral Rodney and Admiral Don Langara, when the latter was defeated and taken prisoner, Jan. 8, 1780.

Near Cadix, when Admiral Rodney defeated the Spaniards, Jan. 16, 1780. Dogger-bank, between Admiral Parker and the Dutch, Aug. 5, 1781.

Off the Cape of Virginia, between Admiral Arbuthnot and the French, 1781.

Between Martinique and Guadeloupe, when Admiral Rodney defeated the French going to attack Jamaica, and took five ships of the line and Admiral Count de Grasse, April 12, 1782.

The same day Admiral Hughes destroyed the fleet of France under Admiral Suffren in the East Indies.

Lord Howe totally defeated the French fleet, took six ships of war, and sunk several, June 1, 1794.

Sir Edward Pellew took 15 sail, and burnt seven, out of a fleet of 35 sail of transports, March 8, 1795.

The French fleet defeated, and two ships of war taken, by Admiral Hotham, March 14, 1795.

Admiral Cornwallis took eight transports, under convoy of three French men of war, June 7, 1795.

Eleven Dutch East Indiamen were taken by the *Sceptre* man of war and some armed Indiamen, June 10, 1796.

The French fleet defeated by Lord Bridport, June 25, 1795, and three ships of war taken near L'Orient.

The Dutch fleet under Admiral Lucas, in Saldanna Bay, Africa, consisting of five men of war, and several frigates, surrendered to Sir George Keith Elphinstone, Aug. 19, 1796.

The Spanish fleet defeated by Sir J. Jarvis, and four line of battle ships taken, Feb. 14, 1797.

The Dutch fleet was defeated by Admiral Duncan on the coast of Holland, where their two admirals and 15 ships of war were taken or destroyed, Oct. 11, 1797.

The French fleet, of 17 ships of war, totally defeated, and nine of them taken, by Sir Horatio Nelson, Aug. 1 1798, near the Nile, in Egypt.

The French off the coast of Ireland, consisting of nine ships, by Sir J. B.

Warren, Oct. 12, 1798, when he took five of them.

The Dutch fleet in the Texel surrendered to Admiral Mitchel, on his taking the Helder, Aug. 29, 1799.

The Danish fleet, of 28 sail, taken or destroyed by Lord Nelson off Copenhagen, April 2, 1801.

Between the French and English in the Bay of Gibraltar: Hannibal of 74 guns lost, July 5, 1801.

French fleet defeated near Cadix, July 16, 1801; two French seventy-fours burnt, one taken.

Sound, between Denmark and Sweden, passed by the English fleet, when Copenhagen was bombarded, April 2, 1801.

French and Spanish fleets totally defeated off Cape Trafalgar, Lord Nelson killed in the action, Oct. 21, 1805.

Four French ships taken by Sir R. Strachan, Nov. 4, 1805.

French fleet defeated in the West Indies by Sir T. Duckworth, Feb. 6, 1806.

French Squadron taken by Sir J. B. Warren, March 13, 1806.

French squadron, in the harbour of Cadix, surrendered to the Spanish patriots, June 14, 1808.

Russian fleet in the Tagus surrendered to the English, Sept. 3, 1808.

French shipping and batteries destroyed in the Basque Roads by Lord Cochrane, April, 1809.

Russian flotilla, eastward of Nargen Island, and another under Percola Point taken or destroyed by Sir James Sumares, July 1809.

Three French ships, *Robust* of 84 guns, *Leon* of 74, and *Boree* of 74, driven on shore by a British squadron under Lord Collingwood, Oct. 25, 1809, and the first two burnt by the French the next day.

The French frigates *La Loire* and *La Seine*, destroyed by the ships under Sir A. Cochrane, off Basseterre, Guadeloupe, Dec. 18, 1809.

Severe action between the British ship *Tribune*, Captain Reynolds, and four Danish brigs, which escaped, from the *Tribune* being damaged in her sails, May 12, 1810.

Seventeen vessels captured or destroyed under the batteries of the Isle of Rhe, by the boats of the *Armide* and *Cadmus*, under Lieutenant Robert, May, 1810.

Amazon French frigate destroyed off Cape Barbeur, by part of the Cherbourg squadron, March 25, 1811.

Number of French ships with stores to Corfu captured by the cruisers under Captain Otway, April 27, 1811.

Six French privateers captured off Sibia, by the boats of the Sabine sloop, May 25, 1811.

Twenty-six sail of French ships taken off Palinurus by the British Thames and Cephalus, July 20, 1811, and afterwards 10 other Neapolitan vessels by the Thames.

Eighteen vessels brought out and ten destroyed, in a creek of Ragosinza, without the loss of a British man, July 27, 1811.

Four Danish gun boats taken by the British near Helligoland, Aug. 6, 1811.

Five French vessels with stores captured in the channel by the British ship Hawke, Aug. 17, 1811.

A French ship sunk, two driven ashore, and a small village battered to the ground, near Cherbourg, by the British ship Hotspur, Sept. 8, 1811.

French flotilla defeated before Dieppe, by Captains Harvey and Trollope, of the Rosario and Griffin sloops, March 27, 1812.

Severe action, between the British squadron, Podargus, Calypso, and Flamer gun brig, and a Danish squadron off Mardoe, when two Danish vessels were reduced to a wreck, July 6, 1812.

British frigate Guerriere captured and destroyed by the American frigate Constitution, Aug. 19, 1812.

British frigate Macedonian captured by the American ship United States, Oct. 25, 1812.

British frigate Java captured by the American ship Constitution, Dec. 29, 1812.

Between the British ship Amelia and a French frigate off the African coast, in which the Amelia had 46 killed and 95 wounded, Feb. 7, 1813.

Peacock, British sloop of war, captured by the American ship Hornet, and so disabled, that she sunk with a great part of her crew, Feb. 25, 1813.

American frigate Chesapeake captured by the British ship Shannon, June 1, 1813.

American sloop of war Argus taken by the British sloop Pelican, Aug. 14, 1813.

French frigate Alcmene taken by the British ship Venerable, Jan. 16, 1814; and the French frigate Iphigenia a few days after.

French frigate Cloride surrendered to the British frigates Dryad and Achates, after a severe engagement with the Eurotas, Feb. 25, 1814.

French frigate L'Etoile captured by the British ship Hebrus, March 27, 1814.

American frigate Essex, captured by the British ships Phoebe and Cherub, March 29, 1814.

British squadron captured by an American squadron, after a severe conflict, in Lake Champlain, Sept. 11, 1814.

Avon, British sloop of war, sunk by the American sloop Wasp, off Kinsale, Sept. 8, 1814.

American ship President captured by the British ship Endymion, Jan. 13, 1815.

Algiers bombarded by Lord Exmouth, a treaty followed, and Christian Slavery abolished, Aug. 27, 1816.

SEBASTIAN, king of Portugal, the son of John II. was born in 1554. He succeeded John III. and was a man of great zeal for religion, and of extraordinary courage, which inspired him with the design of making an expedition into Africa against the Moors in 1574. Taking with him the principal nobility and gentry of Portugal, he landed at Tangier on the 9th of July, 1578, and gave battle to Abde-melech at Alcacer, the 4th of August the same year, where his army was defeated. Abte-melech, who was sick, died in a litter, Mahomet perished in a bog, and the report was, that Sebastian himself was killed there in the 25th year of his age. Notwithstanding this, in 1598, a man at Venice declared himself to be king Sebastian; he resembled him so exactly in face, stature and voice, that the Portuguese that were in that city, and amongst them one of his servants, owned him for their king. Some days after he was seized, and conveyed before judges, before whom he always maintained himself to be king Sebastian; he told them that the Moors who took him prisoner did not know him to be the king; that the sorrow and repentance which seized him for having so rashly undertaken that expedition, had nearly caused his death; and

that now after having suffered in a strange country, he came to re-demand the crown. He showed upon his body the same marks which several had seen formerly on the body of the king of Portugal, and discovered to the Venetians some secrets they had formerly proposed to him by their ambassadors, to prove he was king Sebastian. The Spaniards, who had upon the report of his death invaded the crown of Portugal, treated him as a madman and impostor, and obliged the Venetians to expel him from their dominions; he was seized again in Tuscany, and brought to Naples, where they set him upon an ass, and led him through all the streets of the city, exposing him to the abuses of the rabble. Some time after they shaved his head, and placed him to row like a slave in a galley; and afterwards being brought to Spain, died in a prison, at the same time when the Portuguese, abhorring and detesting these barbarous dealings of the Spaniards, wished to have him whom they knew to be their king, restored to them.

SEBASTIAN ST., a considerable town of the north-east of Spain. It has been repeatedly taken by the French; it fell into their hands in the short war of 1719; in the revolutionary contest of 1794; and in Bonaparte's invasion in 1808. On the last occasion it remained five years in their possession, and when the victory of Vittoria, by the British, (21st June, 1813) opened a prospect of its recapture, the French had time to throw into it, a garrison capable of making a very obstinate defence. An attempt on the part of the British, to take it by assault, on the 25th of July, was repulsed with heavy loss. It became necessary to make approaches with great caution, and even to incur a severe sacrifice of lives in the final attack, on the 31st of August, when it fell into the hands of the British.

SEIBO, a town of the island of Hispaniola. It was here the Spanish patriots first assembled to meet the French general, Ferrand, who was coming against them; and about two leagues nearer the capital, on the main road, he met with that defeat on the 7th of November, 1809, which cost him his life, and laid the foundation of their independence.

SEJANUS AELIUS, a native of

Vulsinum in Tuscany, who distinguished himself in the court of Tiberius. His father's name was Servius Strabo, a Roman knight, commander of the prætorian guards. His mother was descended from the Junian family. Sejanus first gained the favors of Caius Cæsar, the grandson of Augustus, but afterwards he attached himself to the interest and the views of Tiberius, who then sat on the imperial throne. The emperor, who was naturally of a suspicious temper, was free and open with Sejanus, and while he distrusted others, he communicated his greatest secrets to this fawning favourite. As commander of the prætorian guards, he was the second man in Rome, and in that important office he made use of insinuations, and every mean artifice to make himself beloved and revered. His affability and condescension gained him the hearts of the common soldiers, and by appointing his own favourites and adherents to places of trust and honour, all the officers and centurions of the army became devoted to his interest. The views of Sejanus in this were well known; yet to advance with more success, he attempted to gain the affection of the senators. In this he met with no opposition. A man who has the disposal of places of honour and dignity, and who has the command of the public money, cannot but be the favourite of those who are in need of his assistance. It is even said, that Sejanus gained to his views all the wives of the senators, by a private and most secret promise of marriage to each of them, whenever he had made himself independent and sovereign of Rome. Yet, however successful with the best and noblest families in the empire, Sejanus had to combat numbers in the house of the emperor; but these seeming obstacles were soon removed. All the children and grandchildren of Tiberius were sacrificed to the ambition of the favourite under various pretences; and Drusus the son of the emperor, by striking Sejanus, made his destruction sure and inevitable. Livia, the wife of Drusus, was gained by Sejanus, and though mother of many children, she was prevailed upon to assist her adulterer in the murder of her husband, and she consented to marry him when Drusus was dead.

No sooner was Drusus poisoned, than Sejanus openly declared his wish to marry Livia. This was strongly opposed by Tiberius; and the emperor, by recommending Germanicus to the senators for his successor, rendered Sejanus bold and determined. He was more urgent in his demands; and when he could not gain the consent of the emperor, he persuaded him to retire to solitude from the noise of Rome and the troubles of the government. Tiberius, naturally fond of ease and luxury, yielded to his representations, and retired to Campania, leaving Sejanus at the head of the empire. This was highly gratifying to the favourite, and he was now without a master. Prudence and moderation might have made him what he wished to be; but Sejanus offended the whole empire when he declared that he was emperor of Rome, and Tiberius only the dependent prince of the island of Caprea, where he had retired. Tiberius was, upon this, fully convinced of the designs of Sejanus; and when he had been informed that his favourite had had the meanness and audacity to ridicule him, by introducing him on the stage, the emperor ordered him to be accused before the senate. Sejanus was deserted by all his pretended friends, as soon as by fortune; and the man who aspired to the empire, and who called himself the favourite of the people, the darling of the prætorian guards, and the companion of Tiberius, was seized without resistance, and the same day strangled in prison, A. D. 31.

SELEUCUS I., one of the captains of Alexander the Great, surnamed Nicator, or Victorious; was son of Antiochus. After the king's death he received Babylon as his province; but his ambitious views, and his attempt to destroy Eumenes as he passed through his territories, rendered him so unpopular, that he fled for safety to the court of his friend Ptolemy, king of Egypt. He was soon after enabled to recover Bactria, which Antigonus had seized in his absence, and he increased his dominions by the immediate conquest of Media, and some of the neighbouring provinces. When he had strengthened himself in his empire, Seleucus imitated the example of the rest of the generals of

Alexander, and assumed the title of independent monarch. He afterwards made war against Antigonus, with the united forces of Ptolemy, Cassander, and Lysimachus; and after this monarch had been conquered and slain, his territories were divided among his victorious enemies. When Seleucus became master of Syria, he built a city there, which he called Antioch, in honour of his father, and made it the capital of his dominions. He also made war against Demetrius and Lysimachus, though he had originally married Stratonice, the daughter of the former, and had lived in the closest friendship with the latter. Seleucus was at last murdered by one of his servants called Ptolemy Ceraunus, a man on whom he bestowed the greatest favours, and whom he had distinguished by acts of the most unbounded confidence. According to Arrian, Seleucus was the greatest and most powerful of the princes who inherited the Macedonian empire after the death of Alexander. His benevolence has been commended; and it has been observed, that he conquered not to enslave nations, but to make them more happy. He founded no less than thirty-four cities in different parts of his empire, which he peopled with Greek colonies, whose national industry, learning, religion, and spirit, were communicated to the indolent and luxurious inhabitants of Asia. Seleucus was a great benefactor to the Greeks; he restored to the Athenians the library and statues which Xerxes had carried away from their city when he invaded Greece, and among them were those of Harmodius, and Aristogiton. Seleucus was murdered 280 years before the Christian era, in the 52d year of his reign, and the 78th, or according to others, the 73d year of his age, as he was going to conquer Macedonia, where he intended to finish his days in peace and tranquillity in that province where he was born.

SELEUCUS II., surnamed Callinicus, succeeded his father Antiochus Theus on the throne of Syria. He attempted to make war against Ptolemy, king of Egypt, but his fleet was shipwrecked in a violent storm, and his armies soon after conquered by his enemy. He was at last taken prisoner

HISTORY

by Arsaces, an officer who made himself powerful by the dissensions which reigned in the house of the Seleucids, between the two brothers, Seleucus and Antiochus; and after he had been a prisoner for some time in Parthia, he died of a fall from his horse, B. C. 226, after a reign of 20 years. Seleucus had received the surname of Pogon, from his long beard, and that of Callinicus, ironically to express his very unfortunate reign. He had married Laodice, the sister of one of his generals, by whom he had two sons, Seleucus and Antiochus, and a daughter whom he gave in marriage to Mithridates, king of Pontus.

SELEUCUS III., succeeded his father Seleucus II., on the throne of Syria, and received the surname of Ceraunus, by antiphrasis, as he was a very weak, timid, and irresolute monarch. He was murdered by two of his officers, after a reign of three years, B. C. 223, and his brother Antiochus, though only 15 years old, ascended the throne, and rendered himself so celebrated that he acquired the name of the Great.

SELEUCUS IV., succeeded his father Antiochus the Great, on the throne of Syria. He was surnamed Philopater, or, according to Josephus, Soter. His empire had been weakened by the Romans when he became monarch, and the yearly tribute of a thousand talents to those victorious enemies, concurred in lessening his power and consequence among nations. Seleucus was poisoned after a reign of 12 years, B. C. 175. His son Demetrius had been sent to Rome, there to receive his education, and he became a prince of great abilities.

SELEUCUS V., succeeded his father Demetrius Nicator, on the throne of Syria, in the 20th year of his age. He was put to death in the first year of his reign by Cleopatra, his mother, who had also sacrificed her husband to her ambition. He is not reckoned by many historians in the number of the Syrian monarchs.

SELEUCUS VI., one of the Seleucids, son of Antiochus Gryphus, killed his uncle Antiochus Cysicenus, who wished to obtain the crown of Syria. He was some time after banished from his kingdom by Antiochus Pius, son of Cysicenus, and fled to Cilicia,

where he was burnt in a palace by the inhabitants, B. C. 93.

SELEUCUS, a prince of Syria, to whom the Egyptians offered the crown of which they had robbed Auletes. Seleucus accepted it, but he soon disgusted his subjects, and received the surname of Cybiosactes, or Scullion, for his meanness and avarice. He was at last murdered by Berenice, whom he had married.

SELEUCIA, a city in Mesopotamia, upon the river Tigris, built by king Seleucus Nicator, supposed to be Bagdad. There is also another Seleucia surnamed Pieria, and called by the Turks Seleuche Ielber, near the mouth of the river Orontes. Besides these, there is yet another Felencia, a city of Phidia, upon the borders of Pamphylia, situate between Antioch on the north, and the city of Pamphylia on the south. Also another city called Seleucia, or rather Seleucos, situated in Syria, upon the river Belus, near Apamea, built also by the king Seleucus.

SELIM, or Selinus I., emperor of the Turks, was the second son of Bajazet II. He took up arms against his father, but coming to an engagement he lost the battle; but by the favour of the Janisaries, he was raised to the throne before his elder brother Achmet. His father, Bajazet, resigned his crown to him, and he poisoned him soon after. He succeeded to the empire in 1512, and began his reign with extraordinary liberalities, bestowed upon the Janisaries and upon all his great officers. In the meantime his brother Achmet, who had placed himself under the protection of the sultan of Egypt, lost the day; and being taken prisoner, was put to death by his brother's order. He also ordered his brother Corchur to be murdered, together with eight of his nephews, and several of his bassas, who had signalized themselves in his service. He was, however, courageous, indefatigable in labour, temperate, liberal, a lover of justice, and a patron of literature. Amurath, one of the sons of his elder brother Achmet, fled into Persia for protection, which was the cause of the war Selim undertook against Sophi Ismael. Selim at the first was repulsed, but afterwards won the battle

of Zelderane, on the 25th of August, 1514; but the victory cost him five thousand men, and in his return he lost many of his soldiers, and all his artillery, in passing the river Euphrates. But, notwithstanding this disaster, he took several cities in Persia, and subdued many petty kings in the neighbourhood. Immediately after these successes in Persia, he turned his arms against Campson Gauri, sultan of Egypt, whom he defeated and killed near Aleppo, in Syria, on the 28th of August, 1516, on which the cities of Aleppo and Damascus, with the rest of that province, were surrendered to him; and Palestina at the same time was subdued by Sinan Bassa. In the meantime the Mamelukes, returning into Egypt, created Tomumpay their sultan, and posted themselves against the Ottomans; but Selim, entering their country, took the city of Grand Cairo, January, 1517, defeated the new sultan on the 27th day of the same month, and this unfortunate prince being found in a bog, where the Arabians had hid him, was crucified by order of Selim. On Selim's return to Constantinople, he had a pestilential boil broke out upon his back-bone, and supposing that the air of Adrianople might be conducive to his recovery, he died upon the way, at Churi, in Thracia, the place where he had fought and poisoned his father, on the 22d of September, 1520, in the forty-sixth year of his age, and the eighth of his reign.

SELIM II., son of Solyman II., succeeded his father in 1566, at the age of forty-two years. The death of his brothers, Mustapha and Bajazet, who had been murdered during the life of Solyman, gave him a free and open entrance to the throne, which he disgraced by his vices. The valour of his generals procured him some victories. Piali and Mustapha conquered the isle of Cyprus for him in 1571, and Occhiali had great success in Barbary, and against the galleys of Malta. But after the loss of Cyprus, the Christians gained the battle at Lepanto, on the 7th of October, in which Haly Bassa was slain. This was the greatest wound the Ottoman empire had for a long time received; and had the Christians made good use

of their victory, they might easily have made themselves masters of Constantinople, the whole city having been put into consternation by the loss of that battle, so that Selim himself left it, and fled to Adrianople. Soon after he made peace with the Venetians, and died of apoplexy, December 13, 1675.

SEMI RAMIS, a celebrated queen of Assyria. Semiramis, when grown up, married Menones, the governor of Ninevah, and accompanied him to the siege of Bactria, where by her advice and prudent directions, she hastened the king's operations and took the city. These eminent services, but chiefly her uncommon beauty, endeared her to Ninus. The monarch asked her of her husband, and offered him instead his daughter Sosana; but Menones, who tenderly loved Semiramis, refused, and when Ninus had added threats to intreaties, he hung himself. No sooner was Menones dead, than Semiramis, who was of an aspiring soul, married Ninus, by whom she had a son called Ninyas. Ninus was so fond of Semiramis, that at her request he resigned the crown to her, and commanded her to be proclaimed queen and sole empress of Assyria. Of this, however, he had cause to repent; Semiramis put him to death, the better to establish herself on the throne, and when she had no enemies to fear at home, she began to repair the capital of her empire, and by her means Babylon became the most superb and magnificent city in the world. She visited every part of her dominions, and left every where immortal monuments of her greatness and benevolence. To render the roads passable and communication easy, she hollowed mountains and filled up valleys; and water was conveyed at a great expence, by large and convenient aqueducts, to barren deserts and unfruitful plains. She was not less distinguished as a warrior; many of the neighbouring nations were conquered; and when Semiramis was once told, as she was dressing her hair, that Babylon had revolted, she left her toilette with precipitation, and though only half dressed, she refused to have the rest of her head adorned before the sedition was quelled, and tranquillity re-established. Semiramis

has been accused of licentiousness, and modern authors have drawn a parallel betwixt her and Catharine of Russia, there being a great resemblance betwixt them in the principal events of their lives, their masculine talents, and private immorality of conduct. The reign of Semiramis was at last terminated by a conspiracy of her own son Ninyas, who is said to have put her to death with his own hand. Her fame was very great throughout the East. After her death she received immortal honours in Assyria. It is supposed that she lived about 1665 years before the Christian era, and that she died in the sixty-second year of her age, and the twenty-fifth of her reign.

SEMPRONIA, a Roman matron, mother of the two Gracchi, celebrated for her learning, and her private as well as public virtues. Also a sister of the Gracchi, who is accused of having assisted the triumvirs Carbo, Gracchus, and Flaccus, to murder her husband, Scipio Africanus the younger. The name of Sempronia was common to the female descendants of the family of the Sempronii, Gracchi, and Scipios.

SELJUKIANS. The Seljukians derive their origin from Seljuk, the father of Dekak, chief officer of a prince of a Turkish tribe inhabiting the coasts of the Caspian sea. Seljuk embraced the Mohammedan faith, and his descendants followed his example. This religion rendered them objects of suspicion to their countrymen of Turkestan, but gained them the friendship of the caliphs of Bagdad, who employed them as their guard, and incorporated them into their armies. In 1037, the caliph Kayem, having sent them to oppose Sultan Masud, who had invaded his territories, the Turks entered Khorasan, which they conquered, and where they established themselves, under the command of Togrol Bec, who was the first Seljukian sultan of Irak or Persia, and whose reign was prosperous and successful. He died at the age of seventy. As Togrol Bec left no children, he was succeeded in 1063, by his nephew Alp-Arsian. Besides various other conquests, he took Romanus, the emperor of Constantinople, prisoner, and generously set him at liberty, without detaining any hos-

tages for his ransom. Malec Shaw succeeded Alp-Arsian in 1072. This sultan returned into Turkestan, the original abode of his ancestors, which he annexed to the empire as an inheritance that ought never to have been separated from it. He loved the sciences, reformed the calendar, and invented the intercalation of the bissextile year; and he is acknowledged to have been the greatest prince among the Seljukians. Malec Shaw left four sons, and appointed Mohammed, the youngest, his successor, to the exclusion of Barkiarok, the oldest. However, while Mohammed was crowned at Bagdad in 1092, Barkiarok was acknowledged sultan at Ispahan, but died at the age of thirty-five, after a turbulent reign of thirteen years. In 1104, Barkiarok declared his son, Mahmud, his successor; but Mohammed enjoyed the most considerable portion of his dominions. After the death of Mohammed, the kingdom devolved on Mahmud, from whom it was wrested by his uncle Sanjar. On the demise of Sanjar, Mahmud took possession of all his dominions in 1117, but was opposed by his brother Masud, who disputed his title sword in hand. Mahmud left his throne to his brother Togrol in 1130. However, by the death of Togrol, Masud remained undisputed master of the whole kingdom, which he governed nineteen years, and died in 1134. Togrol II., the fourteenth sultan, was assassinated, and with him ended, in 1193, the reign of the Seljukians in Irak or Persia. The second branch, or dynasty of the Seljukians, denominated of Kerman, began about A. D. 1063, and ended in 1187, and produced eleven sultans, whose authority was circumscribed to a small territory lying between Persia, Segestan, Mekran, and Ormus, and who possessed some islands and harbours in the Persian gulf. The third branch or dynasty of the Seljukians, called that of Roum, derives its name from their having reigned in Asia Minor, comprehending the kingdoms of Pontus; Bythinia, Media, Phrygia, Galatia, Armenia Minor, Cappadocia, and other states, forming a vast peninsula between the Euxine sea, and the Propontis and Archipelago, the Mediterranean sea and Syria, as far as the Euphrates; all which composed a part of the Greek empire, which the

Asiatics knew under the name of the Roman empire, and which they called the territories of Roum. The Turks, in pursuit of the Arabs, advanced into the interior of this country, expelled the Greeks, and took possession of the territory of Roum, which has since been called Anatolia. This conquest was begun under Malec Shaw, a Seljukian sultan of Persia. This prince made over the cities which he had captured, with a sufficient number of troops, to one of his cousins, named Soliman, in 1074, who was the founder of the dynasty of the Seljukian Roum Turks. His son, Kilij-Arslan, established another capital at Iconium in 1093, whence his successors derive their title of sultans of Iconium. He also dispossessed the crusaders of Nice, which they had taken. The history of the Sultans of Iconium is only replete with devastations, massacres, and conflagrations. Under Kaikabad, who commenced his reign A. D. 1219, the Turkish dynasty of Ottomans began. This wretched country was alternately torn to pieces by Greeks, Turks, adventurers of every nation, and the princes of the Seljukian dynasty, whose affairs, in process of time, became so desperate, that they only held their territory as tributaries to the Mogul khans. At length the Moguls, weary of being only protectors, invaded the dominions of Kaikabad, whom they put to death, and with whom ended the dynasty of the Seljukians.

SENACHERIB, king of the Assyrians, succeeded Salmanasser about A. M. 3319, and laid siege to Jerusalem, but soon broke up the siege, and retreated with great precipitation, leaving all his baggage. Soon after he was praying in the temple of Nisroch in Nineveh, he was killed by his two sons Adrammelech and Sharezer in 3325.

SENATE, the chief council of the state among the Romans. The members of this body, called senators, on account of their age, and patres, on account of their authority, were of the greatest consequence in the republic. The senate was first instituted by Romulus, to govern the city, and to preside over the affairs of the state during his absence. This was continued by his successors; but Tarquin the Second disdained to consult them, and

by having his own council chosen from his favourites, and from men who were totally devoted to his interest, he diminished the authority and the consequence of the senators, and slighted the concurrence of the people. The senators whom Romulus created were an hundred, to whom he afterwards added the same number when the Sabines had migrated to Rome. Tarquin the ancient made the senate consist of 300, and this number remained fixed for a long time. After the expulsion of the last Tarquin, whose tyranny had thinned the patricians as well as the plebeians, 164 new senators were chosen to complete the 300; and as they were called conscripts, the senate ever afterwards consisted of members who were denominated patres, and conscripti. The number continued to fluctuate during the times of the republic, but gradually increased to 700, and afterwards to 900 under Julius Cæsar, who filled the senate with men of every rank and order. Under Augustus, the senators amounted to 1000, but this number was reduced to 300, which being the cause of complaints, induced the emperor to limit the number to 600. The senators were to be above the age of 25, and to have previously passed through the inferior offices of quæstor, tribune of the people, edile, prætor, and consul. Some, however, suppose that the senators whom Romulus chose were all old men; yet his successors neglected this, and often men who were below the age of 25 were admitted by courtesy into the senate. The dignity of a senator could not be supported without the possession of 80,000 sesterces, or about 7,000l. English money; and therefore such as squandered away their money, and whose fortune was reduced below this sum, were generally struck out of the list of senators. They were distinguished from the rest of the people by their dress; they wore the laticlave, half-boots of a black colour, with a crescent or silver buckle in the form of C; but this last honour was confined only to the descendants of those hundred senators who had been elected by Romulus, as the letter C seems to imply. The right of convocating the senate belonged only to the monarchs; and after the expulsion of the Tarquins, to the consuls, the dictator, the master of the horse, governor of Rome,

and tribunes of the people; but no magistrate could exercise this privilege except in the absence of a superior officer, the tribunes excepted. The time of meeting was generally three times a month, on the *calends*, *nones*, and *ides*. Under Augustus they were not assembled on the *nones*. It was requisite that the place where they assembled should have been previously consecrated by the *augur*. This was generally in the Temple of Concord, of Jupiter Capitolinus, Apollo, Castor and Pollux, &c. or in the *Curie* called *Hostilia*, *Julia*, *Pompeia*, &c. When audience was given to foreign ambassadors, the senators assembled without the walls of the city, either in the temples of *Bellona* or of *Apollo*; and the same ceremony as to their meeting was also observed when they transacted business with their generals, as the ambassadors of foreign nations, and the commanders of armies, while in commission, were not permitted to appear within the walls of the city. To render their decrees valid and authentic, a certain number of members was requisite, and such as were absent without some proper cause, were always fined. In the reign of Augustus, 400 senators were requisite to make a senate. Nothing was transacted before sun-rise, or after sun-set. In their office the senators were the guardians of religion, they disposed of the provinces as they pleased, they prorogued the assemblies of the people, they appointed thanksgivings, nominated their ambassadors, distributed the public money, and in short, had the management of every thing political or civil in the republic, except the creating of magistrates, the enacting of laws, and the declarations of war or peace, which were confined to the assemblies of the people. Rank was always regarded in their meetings: the chief magistrates of the state, such as the consuls, the *prætors*, and *censors*, sat first; after these the inferior magistrates, such as the *ediles* and *questors*, and last of all, those that then exercised no office in the state. Their opinions were originally collected, each according to his age; but when the office of censor was instituted, the opinion of the *princeps senatus*, or the person whose name stood first on the censor's list, was first consulted, and afterwards those who were

of consular dignity, each in their respective order. In the age of *Cicero* the consuls elect were first consulted; and in the age of *Cæsar*, he was permitted to speak first till the end of the year, on whom the consul had originally conferred that honour. Under the emperors the same rules were observed, but the consuls were generally consulted before all others. When any public matter was introduced into the senate, which was always called *referre ad senatum*, any senator whose opinion was asked, was permitted to speak upon it as long as he pleased; and on that account it was often usual for the senators to protract their speeches till it was too late to determine. When the question was put, they passed to the side of that speaker whose opinion they approved, and a majority of votes was easily collected, without the trouble of counting the numbers. This mode of proceeding was called *pedibus in alienius sententiam ire*; and therefore on that account the senators who had not the privilege of speaking, but only the right of giving a silent vote, such as bore some *curule* honour, and on that account were permitted to sit in the senate, but not to deliberate, were denominated *pedarii senatores*. After the majority had been known, the matter was determined, and a *senatus consultum* was immediately written by the clerks of the house, at the feet of the chief magistrates, and it was signed by all the principal members of the house. When there was not a sufficient number of members to make a senate, the decision was called *senatus auctoritas*; but it was of no consequence if it did not afterwards pass into a *senatus consultum*. The tribunes of the people, by the word *veto*, could stop the debates, and the decrees of the assembled senate, as also any one who was of equal authority with him who had proposed the matter. The *senatus consulta* were left in the custody of the consuls, who could suppress or preserve them; but about the year of Rome 304, they were always deposited in the temple of *Ceres*, and afterwards in the treasury, by the *ediles* of the people. The degradation of the senators was made by the censor, by omitting their names when he called over the list of the senate. This was called *præterire*. A senator could be again introduced into

the senate if he could repair his character, or fortune, which had been the causes why the censor had lawfully called him unqualified, and had challenged his opposition. The meeting of the senate was often sudden, except the particular times already mentioned, upon any emergency. After the death of Julius Cæsar, they were not permitted to meet on the ides of March, which were called *paricidium*, because on that day the dictator had been assassinated. The sons of senators, after they had put on the *toga virilis*, were permitted to come into the senate; but this was afterwards limited. The rank and authority of the senators, which were so conspicuous in the first ages of the republic, and which caused the minister of Pyrrhus to declare, that the Roman senate was a venerable assembly of kings, dwindled into nothing under the emperors. Men of the lowest character were admitted into the senate; the emperors took pleasure in robbing this illustrious body of their privileges and authority; and the senators themselves, by their manners and servility, contributed as much as the tyranny of the sovereign to diminish their own consequence; and by applauding the follies of a Nero, and the cruelties of a Domitian, they convinced the world that they no longer possessed sufficient prudence or authority to be consulted on matters of weight and importance. In the election of successors to the imperial purple, after Augustus, the approbation of the senate was consulted, but it was only a matter of courtesy; and the concurrence of a body of men was little regarded, who were without power, and under the controul of a mercenary army. The title of *Clarissimus* was given to the senators under the emperors; and indeed this was the only distinction which they had in compensation for the loss of their independence. The senate was abolished by Justinian, 13 centuries after its first institution by Romulus.

SENECA, (M. ANNEUS,) a native of Corduba in Spain, who married Helvia, a woman of Spain, by whom he had three sons, Seneca the philosopher, Annæus Novatus, and Annæus Mela, the father of the poet Lucan. Seneca made himself known by some declamations, of which he

made a collection from the most celebrated orators of the age; and from that circumstance, and for distinction, he obtained the appellation of *declamator*. He left Corduba, and went to Rome, where he became a Roman knight. His son L. Annæus Seneca, who was born about six years before Christ, was early distinguished by his extraordinary talents. He was taught eloquence by his father, and received lessons in philosophy from the best and most celebrated stoics of the age. As one of the followers of the Pythagorean doctrines, Seneca observed the most reserved abstinence, and in his meals never ate the flesh of animals; but this he abandoned at the representation of his father, when Tiberius threatened to punish some Jews and Egyptians who abstained from certain meats. In the character of a pleader, Seneca appeared with great advantage; but the fear of Caligula, who aspired to the name of an eloquent speaker, and who consequently was jealous of his fame, deterred him from pursuing his favourite study, and he sought a safer employment in canvassing for the honours and offices of the state. He was made quaestor, but the aspersions which were thrown upon him on account of a shameful amour with Julia Livilla, removed him from Rome, and the emperor banished him for some time into Corsica. During his banishment, the philosopher wrote some spirited epistles to his mother, remarkable for elegance of language and for sublimity; but he soon forgot his philosophy, and disgraced himself by his flatteries to the emperor, and in wishing to be recalled, even at the expence of his innocence and character. The disgrace of Messalina at Rome, and the marriage of Agrippina with Claudius proved favourable to Seneca; and after he had remained five years in Corsica, he was recalled by the empress to take care of the education of her son Nero, who was destined to succeed to the empire. In the honourable duty of preceptor, Seneca gained applause; and as long as Nero followed his advice, Rome enjoyed tranquillity, and believed herself safe and happy under the administration of the son of Agrippina. In the corrupted age of Nero, the preceptor had to withstand the clamours of many wicked and profligate

gate ministers; and if he had been the favourite of the emperor, and shared his pleasures, his debauchery, and extravagance, Nero would not perhaps have been so anxious of destroying a man whose example, from vicious inclinations, he could not follow, and whose salutary precepts his licentious associates forbade him to obey. Seneca was too well acquainted with the natural disposition of Nero to think himself secure; he had been accused of having amassed the most ample riches, and of having built sumptuous houses, and adorned beautiful gardens, during the four years in which he had attended Nero as a preceptor; and therefore he desired his imperial pupil to accept of the riches, and the possessions which his attendance on his person had procured, and to permit him to retire to solitude and study. Nero refused, with artful duplicity, and Seneca, to avoid further suspicions, kept himself at home for some time, as if labouring under a disease. In the conspiracy of Piso, which happened some time after, and in which some of the most noble of the Roman senators were concerned, Seneca's name was mentioned by Natalis; and Nero, who was glad of an opportunity of sacrificing him to his secret jealousy, ordered him to destroy himself. Seneca, very probably, was not accessory to the conspiracy; and the only thing which could be produced against him as a crimination, was trivial and unsatisfactory. Piso, as Natalis declared, had complained that he never saw Seneca, and the philosopher had observed in answer, that it was not proper or conducive to their common interest, to see one another often. He further pleaded indisposition, and said that his own life depended upon the safety of Piso's person. Seneca was at table with his wife Paulina and two of his friends, when the messenger from Nero arrived. He heard the words which commanded him to destroy himself, with philosophical firmness, and even with joy; and observed, that such a mandate might have long been expected from a man who had murdered his own mother, and assassinated all his friends. He wished to dispose of his possessions as he pleased, but this was refused; and when he heard this, he turned to his friends, who were

weeping at his melancholy fate, and told them, that since he could not leave them what he believed his own, he would leave them at least his own life for an example,—an innocent conduct which they might imitate, and by which they might acquire immortal fame. Against their tears and wailings he exclaimed with firmness, and asked them whether they had not learnt better to withstand the attacks of fortune, and the violence of tyranny? As for his wife, he attempted to calm her emotions; and when she seemed resolved to die with him, he said he was glad to find his example followed with so much constancy. Their veins were opened at the same moment; but the life of Paulina was preserved, and Nero, who was partial to her, ordered the blood to be stopped, and from that moment, according to some authors, the philosopher's wife seemed to rejoice that she could still enjoy the comforts of life. Seneca's veins bled but slowly; and it has been observed, that the sensible and animated conversation of his dying moments was collected by his friends, and that it has been preserved among his works. To hasten his death, he drank a dose of poison, but it had no effect; and therefore he ordered himself to be carried into a hot bath, to accelerate the operation of the draught, and to make the blood flow more freely. This was attended with no better success; and as the soldiers were clamorous, he was carried into a stove, and suffocated by the steam, on the 19th of April, in the 65th year of the Christian era, in his 53d year.

SENEFE, a small town of the Netherlands, in the province of Hainault. It is noted as the scene of a sanguinary but indecisive battle, fought on 11th August, 174, between the prince of Orange and the prince of Conde.

SENNESERTÆUS, an Egyptian king, who is taken to be the third king of the 26th dynasty, whom Manetho calls Sammus, and Cresias, Amyrtea. Most authors fix his reign about the beginning of the Olympiads, or the foundation of Rome. He caused a magnificent obelisk to be erected, 125 feet high, adorned with hieroglyphics, and placed it in the city Heliopolis, whence Augustus got it transported to

Rome, where it was exposed in the great Circus. Pope Sixtus V. dug it up out of the earth, where it had been hid during the invasion of the Goths, and placed it in the Forum Flaminium, in 1589.

SERINAGUR, or **GERWALL**, a principality of northern Hindostan. In the year 1791, the Nepaulese invaded Serinagur. In 1803, the rajah of Nepaul marched in person at the head of his army, and was met by the Serinagur chief. A bloody battle ensued, in which the latter, with a number of his followers, were killed, and the rest compelled to fly. During the war between the Nepaulese and the British in 1815 and 1816, a relation of the late rajah having joined the latter was, at the conclusion of the peace, re-established in his principality. Serinagur is therefore now under British protection and influence.

SERINGAPATAM, a celebrated city of the south of India. In the month of February, 1792, it was invested by the British and allied armies under Lord Cornwallis, amounting to 400,000. Terrified by such a host, Tippoo Sultan relinquished half his dominions, and paid three and a half millions sterling to the conquerors. Seringapatam was again invested in 1799, by the British and Nizam's forces, and was stormed on the 4th of May. By the conquest which was thus made, it became the property of the British, and is the residence of a judge, collector, &c. For further information, see the article *Mysore*.

SERINGHAM, an island of the district of Trichinopoly, in the south of India. In the year 1751, during the siege of Trichinopoly, the French and their allies took possession of the island of Seringham. Early in the following year the whole of the French forces were captured in the island by the British, under Major Lawrence.

SERTORIUS, (Quintus,) a Roman general, son of Quintus and Rhea, born at Nursia. His first campaign was under the great Marius, against the Teutones and Cimbri. He visited the enemy's camp as a spy, and had the misfortune to lose one eye in the first battle he fought. When Marius and Cinna entered Rome and slaughtered all their enemies, Sertorius accompanied them, but he expressed his sorrow and concern at the

melancholy death of so many of his countrymen. He afterwards fled for safety into Spain, when Sylla had proscribed him, and in this distant province he behaved himself with so much address and valour that he was looked upon as the prince of the country. The Lusitanians universally revered and loved him, and the Roman general did not show himself less attentive to their interest, by establishing public schools, and educating the children of the country in the polite arts, and the literature of Greece and Rome. He had established a senate, over which he presided with consular authority and the Romans who followed his standard, paid equal reverence to his person. They were experimentally convinced of his valour and magnanimity as a general, and the artful manner in which he imposed upon the credulity of his adherents in the garb of religion, did not diminish his reputation. The success of Sertorius in Spain, and his popularity among the natives, alarmed the Romans. They sent some troops to oppose him, but with little success. Four armies were found insufficient to crush or even hurt Sertorius; and Pompey and Metellus, who never engaged an enemy without obtaining the victory, were driven with dishonour from the field. But the favourite of the Lusitanians was exposed to the dangers which usually attend greatness. Perpenna, one of his officers, who was jealous of his fame and tired of a superior, conspired against him. At a banquet the conspirators began to open their intentions by speaking with freedom and licentiousness in the presence of Sertorius, whose age and character had hitherto claimed deference from others. Perpenna overturned a glass of wine, as a signal for the rest of the conspirators, and immediately Antonius, one of his officers, stabbed Sertorius, and the example was followed by all the rest, 73 years before Christ. Sertorius has been commended for his love of justice and moderation. The flattering description which he heard of the Fortunate Islands when he past into the west of Africa, almost tempted him to bid adieu to the world, and perhaps he would have retired from the noise of war, and the clamours of envy, to end his days in the bosom of a peaceful and solitary

HISTORY.

island, had not the stronger skills of ambition and the love of fame, prevailed over the intruding reflections of a moment. It has been observed, that in his latter days Sertorius became indolent, and fond of luxury and wanton cruelty; yet we must confess that in affability, clemency, complaisance, generosity, and military valour, he not only surpassed his contemporaries, but the rest of the Romans.

SERVIA, an extensive province of European Turkey. It was subjugated by the Turks in 1368. The implacable hatred which the Servians entertained towards their rulers led to an insurrection in the year 1801. In December, 1806, Cserni Georges, the Servian chieftain, besieged Belgrade, took it after an obstinate resistance, and in a great measure expelled the Turks from the country, which he ruled with the authority of a sovereign. The forces which were brought against him, he resisted with various success until 1814, when he withdrew into Russia, and by a convention concluded between his country and the Porte in 1815, the Servians acknowledged the sovereignty of the Sultan.

SERVILIUS, (D.) a Roman consul who was sent unto the Gauls with a powerful army, and commanded there during the Cymbrian and German wars. His insatiable avarice having instigated him to rob the temples of Thoulouse, whence he took a vast sum of gold and silver which had been consecrated to the gods of the country, he was punished with the entire defeat of his whole army, and having returned to Rome, was condemned and died in prison.

SERVIUS, (Sulpitius Rufus) an orator, and the greatest lawyer of his time. He was the disciple of Fulcillus Balbus, and of C. Aquilius Gallus, and an imitator of Q. Mucius Scaevola. He was consul at Rome in 703 with Marcus Marcellus. He left divers tracts of law, and had several disciples; the most famous of whom were P. Alphenus Varus; C. Aulus Offilius, Aufidius, &c. The consequences of the war began by Antonius being much dreaded by the Romans. Sulpitius was desired to go to him whilst he was besieging Modena, and endeavour to persuade him to listen to an accommodation. He

accepted of the commission, but died on his way thither, in 710.

SERVIUS TULLIUS, the sixth king of Rome, was son of Oerisia, a slave of Corniculum, by Tullius, a man slain in the defence of his country against the Romans. Oerisia was given by Tarquin to Tanaquil his wife, and she brought up her son in the king's family, and added the name of Servius to that which he had inherited from his father, to denote his slavery. Young Servius was educated in the palace of the monarch with great care, and though originally a slave, he raised himself to so much consequence, that Tarquin gave him his daughter in marriage. His own private merit and virtues recommended him to notice not less than the royal favours, and Servius became the favourite of the people and the darling of the soldiers, by his liberality and complaisance; and was easily raised to the throne on the death of his father-in-law. Rome had no reason to repent of her choice. Servius endeared himself still more as a warrior and as a legislator. He defeated the Veientes and the Saccians, and by a proper act of policy he established the census, which told him that Rome contained about eighty-four thousand inhabitants. He increased the number of the tribes, he beautified and adorned the city, and enlarged its boundaries by taking within its walls the hills Quirinalis, Viminalis, and Esquilinus. He also divided the Roman people into tribes, and that he might not seem to neglect the worship of the gods, he built several temples to the goddess of fortune, to whom he deemed himself particularly indebted for obtaining the kingdom. He also built a temple to Diana on mount Aventine, and raised himself a palace on the hill Esquilinus. Servius married his two daughters to the grandsons of his father-in-law; the elder to Tarquin, and the younger to Aruns. This union, as might be supposed, tended to ensure the peace of his family; but if such were his expectations, he was unhappily deceived. The wife of Aruns, naturally fierce and impetuous, murdered her own husband to unite herself to Tarquin, who had likewise assassinated his wife. These bloody measures were no sooner pursued, than Servius was

murdered by his own son-in-law, and his daughter Tullia shewed herself so inimical to filial gratitude and piety, that she ordered her chariot to be driven over the mangled body of her father, B. C. 534.

SESOSTRIS, king of Egypt, who flourished 1484, B. C., according to the Grecian historians, but who, according to the Chronicles of Eri, died 956, B. C. was the son of Ammon. In the life-time of his father, he made a voyage to the extremities of the Red Sea, and set up pillars at its entrance. In the year following he conquered Lybia and the maritime nations of Africa, whence passing into Spain, he overran that country, set up the pillars of Hercules, and obliged the goal of Seyot of Iber to emigrate to Erin. He then passed through Gaul and Italy into Egypt. On the death of his father he beautified the city of Thebes, built temples to him, and caused his memory to be worshipped with divine honours. He afterwards made Jero-boam king of Samaria, invaded Judea, and sacked the temple of Jerusalem. He then moved towards the Euphrates, penetrated through Persia to the Ganges or Indus, and on one of those rivers, erected columns to mark the boundaries of his empire. On returning to Egypt, he confided the administration of his African provinces to his brothers, Japetus and Danaus, and undertook an expedition to Caucasus and Colchis, whence he proceeded to Thrace, when he was stopt in his career of conquest by the Ellenes, Pelesgol, and Achajol, with whom he made peace, and returned through Thrace into Egypt. In the meantime his brothers ought to make themselves independent; but on his return, Danaus fled to Greece, where he carried the twelve superior gods of Egypt, whom he presented to the Amphictyon council, by whom they were acknowledged as the deities of Greece. Japetus, his other brother, however, kept the field against him, and Sesostria lost his life during the war. This celebrated conqueror reigned 54 years, and subjugated the world, from the Ganges to the Atlantic, and from Ethiopia to Thrace. Nine years after his death, the Ethiopians invaded Egypt, when Orus, the son of Sesostria, was drowned in the Nile, and Bupanke, his daughter, destroyed her-

self. Sesostria, according to the Chronicles of Eri, was the brother-in-law of Solomon, whose first wife was daughter of the king of Egypt, which king was Ammon, from whom she is called in the sacred writings, the Ammonite, and who was deified under the name of Jupiter Ammon, by his son Sesostria.

SEVERUS, (Lucius Septimius,) a Roman emperor, born at Leptis in Africa, of a noble family. He gradually exercised all the offices of the state and recommended himself to the notice of the world by an ambitious mind and a restless activity, that could, for the gratification of avarice, endure the most complicated hardships. After the murder of Pertinax, Severus resolved to remove Didius Julianus, who had bought the imperial purple when exposed to sale by the licentiousness of the pratorians, and therefore he proclaimed himself emperor on the borders of Illyricum, where he was stationed against the barbarians. To support himself in this bold measure, he took, as his partner in the empire, Albinus, who was at the head of the Roman forces in Britain, and immediately marched towards Rome to crush Didius and all his partisans. He was received, as he advanced through the country, with universal acclamations, and Julianus himself was soon deserted by his favourites, and assassinated by his own soldiers. The reception of Severus at Rome, was sufficient to gratify his pride; the streets were strewed with flowers, and the submissive senate were ever ready to grant whatever honors or titles the conqueror claimed. In professing that he had assumed the purple only to revenge the death of the virtuous Pertinax, Severus gained many adherents, and was enabled not only to disarm, but to banish the pratorians, whose insolence and avarice were become alarming, not only to the citizens but to the emperor. But while he was victorious at Rome, Severus did not forget that there was another competitor for the imperial purple. Pescennius Niger was in the east at the head of a powerful army, and with the name and ensigns of Augustus. Many obstinate battles were fought between the troops and officers of the imperial rivals, till on the plains of Issus, which had been above five centuries before

HISTORY.

covered with the blood of the Persian soldiers of Darius, Niger was totally ruined by the loss of 20,000 men. The head of Niger was cut off and sent to the conqueror, who punished in a most cruel manner, all the partisans of his unfortunate rival. Severus afterwards pillaged Byzantium, which had shut her gates against him; and after he had conquered several nations in the east, he returned to Rome, resolved to destroy Albinus, with whom he had hitherto reluctantly shared the imperial power. He attempted to assassinate him by his emissaries; but when this had failed of success, Severus had recourse to arms, and the fate of the empire was again decided on the plains of Gaul. Albinus was defeated, and the conqueror was so elated with the recollection that he had now no longer a competitor for the purple, that he insulted the dead body of his rival, and ordered it to be thrown into the Rhone, after he had suffered it to putrefy before the door of his tent, and to be torn to pieces by his dogs. The family and the adherents of Albinus shared his fate; and the return of Severus to the capital exhibited the bloody triumphs of Marius and Sylla. The richest of the citizens were sacrificed, and their money became the property of the emperor. The wicked Commodus received divine honours, and his murderers were punished in the most wanton manner. Tired of the inactive life which he led in Rome, Severus marched into the east, with his two sons Caracalla and Geta, and with uncommon success made himself master of Seleucia, Babylon, and Ctesiphon; and advanced without opposition, far into the Parthian territories. From Parthia, the emperor marched towards the more southern provinces of Asia; after he had visited the tomb of Pompey the Great, he entered Alexandria; and after he had granted a senate to that celebrated city, he viewed with the most criticising and inquisitive curiosity, the several monuments and ruins which that ancient kingdom contains. The revolt of Britain recalled him from the east. After he had reduced it under his power, he built a wall across the northern part of the island, to defend it against the frequent invasions of the Caledonians. Hitherto successful against his enemies, Se-

verus now found the peace of his family disturbed. Caracalla attempted to murder his father as he was concluding a treaty of peace with the Britons; and the emperor was so shocked at the undutifulness of his son, that on his return home he called him into his presence, and after he had upbraided him for his ingratitude and perfidy, he offered him a drawn sword, adding, "If you are so ambitious of reigning alone, now imbrue your hands in the blood of your father, and let not the eyes of the world be witnesses of your want of filial tenderness." If these words checked Caracalla, yet he did not shew himself concerned, and Severus, worn out with infirmities, which the gout and the uneasiness of his mind increased, soon after died, exclaiming he had been every thing man could wish, but that he was then nothing. Some say that he wished to poison himself, but that when this was denied, he eat to great excess, and soon after expired at York, on the 4th of February, in the 211th year of the Christian era, in the 66th year of his age, after a reign of seventeen years, eight months, and three days. Severus has been so much admired for his military talents, that some have called him the most warlike of the Roman emperors. As a monarch, he was cruel, and it has been observed that he never did an act of humanity, or forgave a fault. In his diet he was temperate, and he always showed himself an open enemy to pomp and splendour. He loved the appellation of a man of letters, and he even composed a history of his own reign, which some have praised for its correctness and veracity. However cruel Severus may appear in his punishments and in his revenge, many have endeavoured to exculpate him, and observed that there was need of severity in an empire whose morals were so corrupted, and where no less than 3000 persons were accused of adultery during the space of seventeen years. Of him, as of Augustus, some were fond to say, that it would have been better for the world if he had never been born, or had never died.

SEVERUS, (Alexander Marcus Aurelius) a native of Phoenicia, adopted by Hellogabalus. His father's name was Genesius Marcianus, and his mother's Julia Mamaea, and he received the surname of Alexander,

because he was born in a temple sacred to Alexander the Great. He was carefully educated, and his mother, by paying particular attention to his morals and the character of his preceptors, preserved him from those infirmities, and that licentiousness, which old age too often attributes to the depravity of youth. At the death of Heliogabalus, who had been jealous of his virtues, Alexander, though only in the 14th year of his age, was proclaimed emperor, and his nomination was approved by the universal shouts of the army, and the congratulations of the senate. He had not long been on the throne before the peace of the empire was disturbed by the incursions of the Persians. Alexander marched into the east without delay, and soon obtained a decisive victory over the barbarians. At his return to Rome, he was honoured with a triumph, but the revolt of the Germans soon after called him away from the indolence of the capital. His expedition in Germany was attended with some success, but the virtues and the amiable qualities of Alexander, were forgotten in the stern and sullen strictness of the disciplinarian. His soldiers, fond of repose, murmured against his severity; their clamours were fomented by the artifice of Maximinus, and Alexander was murdered in his tent, in the midst of his camp, after a reign of thirteen years and nine days, on the 18th of March, A. D. 235. His mother Mamaea, shared his fate with all his friends; but this was no sooner known than the soldiers punished with immediate death, all such as had been concerned in the murder, except Maximinus.

SEVILLE, a large city of Spain. It opened its gates to the Moors, in 711, and continued in their possession more than five centuries. It was taken by the Christians in 1247, after one of the most obstinate sieges mentioned in Spanish history. In 1729, a treaty was concluded here between Spain, England, France, and Holland. On the invasion of Spain by Bonaparte, in 1808, Seville asserted the national independence, and received the junta when driven from Madrid. It surrendered, however, to the French, on the 1st February, 1810, and remained in their hands till 27th of August, 1812, when they were com-

pelled to leave it in consequence, not of insurrection on the part of the inhabitants, but of the general evacuation of the south of Spain, consequent on their defeat at Salamanca.

SEYMOUR (Edward), duke of Somerset, was the eldest son of sir John Seymour, by Elizabeth, daughter of sir Henry Wentworth. In 1533, he accompanied the duke of Suffolk to France, and was knighted the same year. In 1544, he was appointed lieutenant-general of the north, and commanded an expedition against the Scots. The same year he was at the siege of Boulogne, where he defeated the French, who lay encamped before the place. By the king's will, he was nominated one of his executors and governor of his son; but Seymour soon after was declared protector of the kingdom. In 1548 he was appointed lord treasurer, created duke of Somerset, and made earl marshal of England. The same year he marched into Scotland, and gained the victory of Musselburgh; but though this raised his reputation, his fate was now fast approaching, to which the execution of his brother, the admiral, greatly contributed. His greatest enemy was the earl of Warwick, and though a marriage had been effected between their children, yet when that nobleman became duke of Northumberland, he accused Seymour of treason, and he was executed on Tower-hill, Jan. 22, 1551-2.

SFORZA, (James) called the Great, was born of mean parents, at Cognola, in 1369. He entered into the army as a common soldier, and by his good conduct rose to the rank of general, and afterwards was made constable of the kingdom of Naples. Pope John XXIII. also appointed him gonfalonier of the church, and created him a count. He compelled Alphonsus of Arragon to raise the siege of Naples; but in pursuing the flying enemy, he fell into the river near Pescara, and was drowned, in 1424. His natural son, Francis Sforza, commanded with distinction in the service of Naples; after which he married the daughter of the duke of Milan, on whose death he was chosen general of the duchy; but abused that trust, and usurped the sovereignty. He also made himself master of Genoa, and died in 1466.

HISTORY.

SHAHNOOR, SANORE, SEVANORE, or SAVANOR, a city of Hindostan, and capital of the district of the same name. In the year 1763, Hyder Aly sent an agent to Abdal Hakeem, nabob of Shahnoor, to solicit his alliance against the Mahrattas; but as he rejected this overture, Hyder invaded his dominions in the following year. In 1786 Tippoo Sultan took Shahnoor, plundered it of every thing valuable, and forced the nabob to take refuge with the Mahrattas. Shahnoor will doubtless be one portion of the Mahratta territory added to the British dominions by the late events in India.

SHALLUM, the son of Jabesh, who conspired against Zachariah, king of Israel, and having slain him, reigned in his stead; but a month after, Menahem, the son of Godi, defeated his army, and caused him to be put to death.

SHANNON FRIGATE—(see *Chesapeake*).

SHARP (Granville), was born at Durham, November 10, 1735. His first exertion in favour of the oppressed Africans was in the case of Jonathan Strog, originally a slave to one Lisle, of Barbadoes, by whom he had been abandoned in London. By the united care of Mr. Sharp and his brother, this poor negro was restored to health and liberty. Some other instances of a like kind occurred before the decision of the court of King's Bench, in the case of the negro Somerset, in 1772. Mr. Sharp also interested himself in behalf of the Caribs, in the island of St. Vincent's, and other humane objects. He was a zealous supporter of the Bible Society, and no less zealous against the claims of the catholics. Though a firm friend to church and state, he was an ardent advocate for parliamentary reform.

SHEERNESS, a market town of England, and sea-port, in the county of Kent, at the mouth of the Medway, and noted for its strong and commanding fortress. The Dutch once attacked this point, destroyed the fortifications, and sailed with their fleet up the Medway as far as Upnor Castle. Since that period the fort has been greatly enlarged and strengthened; new works have been added, and such improvements made as to

command effectually the entrance of the river.

SHEFFIELD (John), duke of Buckinghamshire, was the son of Edward, earl of Mulgrave, and born in 1649. At the age of seventeen he served in the fleet, and afterwards had the command of a troop of horse. In 1689, being then lord Mulgrave, he was sent to the relief of Tangier, which service he accomplished. He complied very much with the measures of James II., and yet concurred in the Revolution, for which he was created marquis of Normandy, and duke of Buckinghamshire. He died in 1730, and was buried in Westminster Abbey, where his epitaph, written by himself, gave great offence.

SHERIDAN, (Richard) was born at Dublin, in 1751. In 1789 Mr. Sheridan was returned to parliament for Stafford, and soon became distinguished as a powerful speaker on the side of opposition. When the Rockingham party came into power, he was made one of the under secretaries; and in the coalition administration, he was appointed secretary to the Treasury. That post, however, he did not hold long, and during the whole of Mr. Pitt's ascendancy, the talents of Sheridan were displayed in combating that statesman. On the trial of Hastings he acted a prominent part, and his eloquence had an electrifying effect on many of his auditors. On the death of Mr. Pitt he became treasurer of the navy; but another change taking place, he was again seated on the opposition side of the house, where, however, his influence was visibly lessened by the decay of his powers, and he retired from parliament some time before his death, which happened July 7, 1816.

SHIP. The first that was seen in Greece arrived at Rhodes from Egypt, 1485 before Christ; the first double-decked one built in England was of one thousand tons burden, by order of Henry VII., 1509, and called the Great Harry; it cost 14,000*l*. Before this, twenty-four-gun ships were the largest in our navy, and these had no port-holes, the guns being on the upper deck. Port-holes and other improvements were invented by Decharges, a French builder at Brest, in the reign of Louis XII., 1500. There were not

shows four merchant ships of 120 tons burden before 1551. The art of ship-building was attributed to the Egyptians, as the first inventors, the first galley being brought from Egypt to Greece by Danaus, 1485, B. C. The first ship, of the burden of eight hundred tons, was built in England in 1597.

SHISHAK, otherwise called Sesonchis, king of Egypt, was the first of the twenty-second dynasty, whose seat was at Bubastis. He began his reign in 995, B. C. Jeroboam being chosen king of the ten tribes, and waging war against Rehoboam, called Shishak to his assistance, who in the fifth year of Rehoboam's reign, came into the field with a powerful army, and took Jerusalem; and having sacked that city, returned again into Egypt. Shishak conquered the empire of Lower Egypt, and took it from the princes of Tanis.

SHOLINGUR, a town of the south of India, province of the Carnatic, rendered famous by the defeat of Hyder Aly, in November, 1781, by a very inferior British force, under the command of sir Eyre Coote.

SHORE, (Jane) mistress of Edward IV., a woman of exquisite beauty and good sense, but who had not virtue enough to resist the temptations of a beautiful man and a monarch. She was fated to incur the indignation of the duke of Gloucester, who had been made protector of the realm on the death of Edward. This unfortunate woman was an enemy too humble to excite the protector's jealousy; yet as he had accused her of witchcraft, of which she was innocent, he thought proper to make her an example for those faults of which she was really guilty. Jane Shore had been formerly deluded from her husband, who was a goldsmith in Lombard-street, and continued to live with Edward, the most guiltless mistress in his abandoned court. The charge against her was too notorious to be denied; she pleaded guilty, and was accordingly condemned to walk bare-foot through the city, and do penance in St. Paul's church, in a white sheet, with a wax taper in her hand, before thousands of spectators. She lived above forty years after this sentence, and was reduced to the most extreme indigence.

SHORTHAM, (New) a market town and borough of England, in the county of Sussex. It is noted in history for being built on the spot where Ella, the Saxon, landed with supplies from Germany, in aid of his countrymen Hengist and Horsa.

SHOVEL, (Sir Cloudesley) an admiral, was born near Clay, in Norfolk, about 1650. In 1674 he was a lieutenant under Sir John Narborough, who sent Mr. Shovel to the dey of Tripoli with a requisition, which the Moor treated with contempt. Sir John then dispatched the lieutenant on shore again, when the dey behaved much worse than before. On his return, Shovel stated to the admiral the practicability of destroying the enemy's shipping, which service he performed the same night without the loss of a man. For this exploit he was appointed to the command of a ship. After the Revolution he was knighted, and made a rear-admiral, in which capacity he had a share in the victory of La Hogue. In 1703 he commanded a fleet in the Mediterranean, and the year following partook in the victory of Malaga. In 1705 he sailed for England, and in the night of October 22, fell by mistake upon the rocks of Scilly, where his ship was totally lost, with some others, and all on board perished. His body being found by the fishermen, they stripped and buried it; but the fact becoming known, the remains of this gallant officer were brought to London, and interred in Westminster Abbey, where a monument, of miserable workmanship, was erected to his memory.

SHREWSBURY, an ancient market town and borough of England, in the county of Salop. In 1215 it is said to have been taken by the Welsh, who are supposed to have retained it till 1221. In 1277 Edward I. made this the principal seat of his court while he was engaged in the final subjection of Wales; and till the conclusion of that war he removed hither the courts of Exchequer and King's Bench. About two miles from the town was fought the famous battle of Shrewsbury, in which Henry V., then prince of Wales, first distinguished himself in the field, and the brave Hotspur was slain. In the civil wars of Charles I. the king came hither,

HISTORY.

and was cordially welcomed by the inhabitants; but in 1645, the army of the parliament succeeded in surprising and taking the town, an event which gave a severe blow to the royal cause, as it cut off the king's communication with North Wales, and put an end to a loyal association then forming among the western countries.

SIBERIA, a vast territory of Asia, including the whole northern part of that continent. The exploration of Siberia may be dated from the period when Russia emancipated herself from the yoke of the Tartar conquerors. At length the czars of Muscovy having acquired a knowledge of the country, began the system of colonizing it, by making it a place of banishment for public criminals, till the settlement being formed, the aversion to migrate thither was greatly abated. A body of wandering Russian troops having sought refuge from the Cossacks, whom they were sent to extirpate, in the eastern regions of this country, they there found established, a Tartar kingdom, of which Sibir was the capital. The khan or ruler having been totally defeated, Germack, the conqueror, took possession of the kingdom, but was afterwards surprised and cut off by an ambuscade of Tartars. In the course of fifty years, a few Cossacks and hunters had, by their intrepid exertions, added to Russia a territory larger in extent than all Europe. However, in extending their conquest, they came in contact with the Chinese empire, the military force of which defeated the Russians on the banks of the Amour, where they were obliged to terminate their progress, and which river forms the line of demarcation between the two empires. Siberia is divided into two great governments, those of Tobolsk and Irkousk, each of which is divided into four circles.

SICILY.—This island was anciently known by the names of Sicania, Sicilia, and Trinacria, from its triangular form. It is situated between Italy and Africa, between the 35th degree and 40 min. and the 38th degree and 30 min. of north latitude, and extends from 35 to 39 degrees of longitude. *Ætna*, now mount Gibello, emits flames, throws up stones and ashes,

and alarms the inhabitants by its roaring; and its convulsions have frequently overturned cities, and covered the island with ruins. In the Tuscan Sea, near Sicily, lie the *Æolian* and *Vulcanian* isles, in which *Vulcan* is fabled to have had his forges, and *Æolus* to have confined the winds subject to his command. Sicily was peopled by Greeks from *Chalcia*, *Achaia*, *Doris*, and from *Crete*, *Rhodes*, and other islands, and by some colonies from Italy. At length, *Syracuse*, which was founded by a Corinthian, usurped the chief power, and continued for a long time the metropolis of Sicily. It was at first governed by kings; and afterwards a democracy was established. It exhibits a perpetual alternation of slavery under tyrants, and of liberty under a popular government. *Gelon* is said to have introduced himself into *Syracuse* by his address, and to have gained the favour of the people, who invested him with absolute power, B. C. 483. He laid the foundation of that immense commerce, which rendered *Syracuse* strong and opulent. He proposed to assist the Greeks against *Xerxes*, when the Carthaginians landed in Sicily an army of 300,000 men, under the command of *Hamilcar*. However, *Gelon*, by means of an intercepted letter was enabled to send a body of cavalry, that put *Hamilcar* to death, dispersed the troops, and burnt the ships, while he attacked the other camp. An assembly of the *Syracusans* being convened, *Gelon* was invited to assume the title of king, and invested with supreme authority. The people also passed a decree, settling the crown, after his death, on his two brothers, *Hiero* and *Thrasybulus*. *Gelon* was succeeded by his elder brother, *Hiero*, B. C. 471, whom some represent as an excellent prince, and others as a covetous, obstinate, and cruel tyrant. *Hiero* was succeeded by his brother *Thrasybulus*, B. C. 459, a cruel and sanguinary tyrant, who massacred all those subjects who gave him the least cause of offence. Incensed at this oppressive conduct, the people took up arms, and expelled the tyrant, who retired to Italy. The *Syracusans*, attempting to subdue the neighbouring cities, the latter requested the assistance of the Athenians, who had long wished to form an esta-

blishment in Sicily. Nicias, a prudent general, endeavoured to dissuade the Athenians from such an undertaking; but the senate and the people were hurried on by enthusiasm, and determined to sell the Syracusans and their allies as slaves, and oblige the other cities of Sicily to pay an annual tribute to Athens. Accordingly, the Athenians set sail, and arrived before Syracuse, which they besieged both by sea and land, B. C. 416. The Syracusans were about to surrender, when Gylippus, a Spartan general, arrived with assistance from Lacædæmon. Nicias found himself under the necessity of demanding a reinforcement from Athens; which dispatched another fleet, commanded by Demosthenes, an enterprising general, who induced Nicias to make an assault, which was not successful. At length the Athenian and Syracusan armaments met, and an engagement ensued, when the Athenians were completely defeated. Finding no other resource left than to endeavour to reach some towns in alliance with them, they began their march. However, the dead and the dying retarded their progress; and the enemy briskly pursued, and allowed them scarcely a moment of rest. Nicias and Demosthenes were made prisoners, and after being publicly scourged, were thrown from a precipice. The soldiers were shut up in the quarries, where they received a scanty allowance of food, and were infected with the putrid bodies of their dead companions. Such was the issue of this war, after it had continued nearly three years. Sicily was soon engaged in a new contest. The Egestines, who had invited the Athenians into Sicily, dreading the resentment of the Syracusans, offered to put their city into the hands of the Carthaginians, from whom they requested assistance against the inhabitants of Selinuntum. The Carthaginians committed the management of the war to Hannibal, the grandson of Hamilcar, who landed in Sicily with an army of 300,000 men. The Selinuntines defended their walls, their streets, their public squares, and even their houses, but were every where overpowered by numbers. Two thousand six hundred of them escaped to Agrigentum, and the rest were cut to pieces by the Carthaginians, who

committed dreadful cruelties and atrocities. The conquerors then marched to Himera, before which Hamilcar had been killed by Gelon, and which shared the same fate as Selinuntum. Hannibal ordered 3000 Himerians to be barbarously massacred on the spot where his grandfather had been defeated and killed; and after thus terminating the campaign, he embarked his troops, and set sail for Africa. The Carthaginians now returned to Sicily with 300,000 men, and attacked Agrigentum. In the first sally, the besieged burnt the machines, and made a prodigious slaughter of the enemy. At length, Agrigentum being greatly distressed for want of provisions, the inhabitants resolved to leave the city, which was taken possession of by the Carthaginians. The Agrigentines, who took refuge in Syracuse, filled that city with complaints against the Syracusan commanders, as if they had betrayed Agrigentum into the hands of the enemy. This raised such disturbances in Syracuse, as afforded to Dionysius, a bold, eloquent, and aspiring man, an opportunity of seizing on the sovereign power. After procuring a guard of 1000 men, and being joined by part of the garrison in Gela, he possessed himself of the citadel, and publicly declared himself king of Syracuse, B. C. 404. But on the first defeat he experienced from the Carthaginians, the people revolted, and united with his enemies. Dionysius, however, found means 'not only to appease the revolt, but to conclude a peace with the Carthaginians. Dionysius again declared war with the Carthaginians, from whom he took the most important of the towns which they possessed in Sicily; but who, nevertheless, appeared before Syracuse, to which they laid siege. The Carthaginians, being exhausted by a plague, were obliged to raise the siege, and Dionysius suffered them to retire unmolested, on condition that they paid him a large sum of money. He then turned his arms against Italy, and took Rhegium, the inhabitants of which he treated with his usual inhumanity. He was succeeded by his son Dionysius, who was surnamed the younger, B. C. 366, and who was a weak and irresolute prince. Dion, the brother of Aristomache, the wife of Dionysius the elder, a friend and

HISTORY.

disciple of Plato, induced the young prince to banish the accomplices of his debaucheries, and to recal Plato. Through a cabal of courtiers, Dion and Plato were disgraced, and obliged to retire to Athens. Dionysius not only refused to Dion the revenue arising from his property, but compelled his wife Arete, who was much beloved by her husband, to espouse Timocrates, one of his courtiers. These provocations incensed Dion, who collected a small band, and arriving at Syracuse whilst Dionysius was engaged with the war in Italy, declared that he came not to avenge his own private wrongs, but to emancipate Syracuse and Sicily from the yoke of the tyrant. Under this standard of liberty, Dion obtained possession of the greater part of the city; and having defeated Dionysius in an engagement, compelled the tyrant to flee into Italy. Dion, having murdered one of his generals, was assassinated in his own house by his guest and friend Calippus. The death of Dion, and the flight of Calippus, recalled Dionysius. B. C. 350, who again reinstated himself in the possession of his dominions, which he retained until he was again expelled by an army under Timoleon. This general overran Sicily as a conqueror, subdued the tyrants of several cities, whom he sent to Corinth to be companions of Dionysius, and defeated the Carthaginians, who again appeared in the island. For the space of twenty years, the Syracusans enjoyed the fruits of Timoleon's services. About that time, Syracuse groaned under the tyranny of Agathocles, who exceeded all his predecessors in cruelty and other vices. He was soon expelled from that city by Sosistratus, who had usurped the supreme power. He then retired into Italy; and during his abode in that country, Sosistratus was obliged to abdicate the sovereignty, and quit Syracuse. Sosistratus and the other exiles had recourse to the Carthaginians, who readily espoused their cause. Upon this, the Syracusans recalled Agathocles, whom they appointed commander-in-chief, and he defeated the combined armies of Sosistratus and the Carthaginians. Agathocles, therefore, began to exercise a sovereign power over his fellow-citizens, and took such measures as

plainly showed that he aimed at monarchy. On discovering his design, the people transferred the command of their forces to a Corinthian; and Agathocles saved his life only by stratagem. Agathocles re-appeared under the walls of Syracuse, at the head of a strong army, and, under pretence of a war with Erbita, a neighbouring city, he collected a great number of soldiers, whom he induced to pillage Syracuse, and to massacre the whole body of the nobility. In a few hours more than four thousand persons fell a sacrifice; and the streets were covered with slain. He ordered the pillage and massacre to be continued two days longer, after which he was proclaimed king by the few survivors. The success of Agathocles gave uneasiness to the Carthaginians, who sent against him an army under the command of Hamilear. This general gained over him a complete victory, which obliged Agathocles to confine himself within Syracuse. Whilst the Carthaginians besieged that city, Agathocles embarked some of his best troops, B. C. 279, and, landing in Africa, burned the vessels which had conveyed his army. An engagement took place between the Syracusans and the Carthaginians, the latter of whom were defeated with the loss of Hanno, their general. Syracuse was now reduced to great extremity; but Agathocles having sent to the inhabitants of that city the head of Hanno, the sight of it encouraged them to support with success a last assault. They afterwards attacked and entirely routed the Carthaginian army, took Hamilear prisoner, and sent his head to Agathocles. As the war was prolonged, Agathocles resolved to return to Sicily; and having given the necessary orders during his absence, embarked with him two thousand chosen men, and arrived at Syracuse. After restoring order to the government, and destroying a league which had been formed against him, he set out once more for Africa. But finding his affairs desperate in that country, he determined to abandon his troops, and, making his escape put to sea. In the first transports of their fury, the soldiers massacred two of his sons whom he had left behind, and, having elected chiefs for themselves, concluded with the Carthaginians a peace, by which

they were to be transported to Sicily, and put in possession of the city of Selinuntum. At length, after a series of cruelties, Agathocles was burnt on the funeral pile, B. C. 289. The government was next assumed by Mænon, who was expelled by Hycetas. The latter took the modest title of prætor, but was deprived of the sovereign power by Tæmion, who was opposed by Sosistratus. But being attacked by the Carthaginians, these chiefs united and called into their assistance Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, who was then carrying on war against the Romans. Pyrrhus re-conquered those cities which had thrown off the yoke. Hiero was appointed to command the Syracusan forces against the Carthaginians, B. C. 275, who had regained most of the places which they possessed before the arrival of the Epirots. He concluded a treaty with the Romans, the conditions of which were faithfully performed on both sides. The defeats which the Romans sustained at the lake Thraymene, and at Cannæ, could not shake his constancy. He died at the age of ninety. Hiero appointed his grandson Hieronymus king, B. C. 211, with a council of fifteen persons, called tutors. His vices and cruelty were such, that a conspiracy was formed against him. He was assassinated while passing through a narrow street, in 208, B. C. and the people shewed so little concern for his person, that they suffered the body to rot in the place where it had fallen. Hieronymus was no sooner dead, than two of the conspirators hastened to prevent the attempts of Andranodorus, and of others of the king's faction. However, he soon after, in concert with Themistus, the husband of Harmonia, sister of the deceased king, formed a plot to exterminate the chief citizens of Syracuse. This being disclosed to the senate, Andranodorus and Themistus were condemned, though absent, and put to death as they were entering the senate-house. Soon after this the guardians and tutors of the late king, and all the royal family, were put to death. The Carthaginians now obtained an ascendancy in Syracuse. Two of the generals, Hippocrates and Epyrides, caused the number of the prætors to be reduced to two, and made the choice fall on themselves. Mar-

cellus, the Roman consul appeared at the gates of Syracuse, B. C. 202, and demanded that the authors of the late massacre should be delivered into his hands; but finding his demand treated with ridicule, he commenced hostilities, and attempted a general assault on the city. However, by the genius of Archimedes, an able mathematician, without employing the sword, two Roman armies were repulsed on this occasion. Marcellus was, therefore, obliged to convert the siege into a blockade: and, at length, he obtained possession of the city by an escalade. The soldiers entered the houses of the Syracusans, seized all the valuables, but offered no violence to the persons of the inhabitants. Acradina, the strongest quarter of the city, held out some time longer, but was at length taken by means of an officer, who gave up to Marcellus one of the gates, B. C. 200. After the capture of Syracuse, Agrigentum was besieged and taken. By order of the consul Lævinus, the chiefs of the last city were scourged and beheaded, and the people reduced to slavery and sold by auction. After this terrible example, no more cities resisted, and Sicily was converted into a province of Rome, B. C. 198. Sicily remained in the hands of the Romans during many centuries. At length, in the 8th and 9th centuries, the Saracens conquered Sicily, and the island remained in their possession 200 years. In the 11th century the Normans made the conquest of this country, and in 1266, it submitted to Charles of Anjou, a French prince. In 1282, the massacre of the French, called the Sicilian vespers, took place here, and after this catastrophe, the inhabitants transferred the sovereignty of their island to Spain, with whom it long remained, as well as that of the Neapolitan territory, to which Sicily became united in 1430. Both were subject to the crown of Spain in 1700. In 1707 the Austrians obtained possession of Naples and Sicily; and by the peace of Utrecht, in 1713, while Naples was confirmed to them, Sicily was given to the duke of Savoy, with the title of king. In 1798, the Austrians prevailed on the new possessors of Sicily to exchange it for Sardinia, and added the former to the kingdom of Naples. The war of 1734, however trans-

HISTORY.

ferred the crown of the two Sicilies to a branch of the royal family of Spain, and it remained in their hands till 1799, when the royal family were expelled from Naples. The latter took refuge in Sicily, were afterwards restored to Naples, but again compelled to take refuge in Sicily. The acquisition of Sicily is said to have been a first-rate object with Napoleon, but an attempt at invasion in 1810 was baffled by the British troops. In 1815, the overthrow of Murat led to the restoration of the legitimate family to the throne of Naples, which they now possess.—See *Naples*.

SICINIUS, L. (Dentatus), a tribune of Rome, celebrated for his valour, and the honours he obtained in the field of battle, during the period of forty years in which he was engaged in the Roman armies. He was present in 121 battles: he obtained fourteen civic crowns; three mural crowns; eight crowns of gold; eighty-three golden collars; sixty bracelets; eighteen lances; twenty-three horses, with all their ornaments; and all as the reward of his uncommon services. He could show the scars of forty-five wounds, which he had received all in his breast, particularly in opposing the Sabines when they took the capitol. The popularity of Sicinius became odious to Appius Claudius, who wished to make himself absolute at Rome, and therefore to remove him from the capital, he sent him to the army, by which, soon after his arrival, he was attacked and murdered. Of one hundred men who were ordered to fall upon him, Sicinius killed fifteen, and wounded thirty; and, according to Dionysius, the surviving number had recourse to artifice to overpower him, by killing him with a shower of stones and darts thrown at a distance, about 405 years before the Christian era. For his uncommon courage Sicinius has been called the Roman Achilles.

SICULA, a people of Italy, driven from their possessions by the Opici. They fled into Sicania, or Sicily, where they settled in the territories which the Sicani inhabited. They soon extended their borders, and after they had conquered their neighbours, the Sicani, they gave their name to the island. This, as some suppose, happened

about 300 years before Greek colonies settled in the island, or about 1650 years before the Christian era.

SIDNEY (Algernon), a republican, was the second son of Robert earl of Leicester, by Dorothy, daughter of the earl of Northumberland, and born about 1620. In the rebellion, he became a colonel in the army of the parliament, a member of the house of commons, and was nominated one of the king's judges, but did not sign the warrant for his execution. The same principles, however, which led him to oppose Charles, made him hostile to Cromwell and his son Richard. In 1659 he was one of the commissioners sent to mediate between Denmark and Sweden. On the Restoration, Sidney remained abroad till 1677, when he received a conditional pardon; but in 1683, being implicated in what was called the Rye-House plot, he was arraigned before the chief justice, Jefferies, and found guilty, though the evidence was defective, and in every sense illegal. He suffered death with great firmness upon Tower Hill, on the seventh of December the same year.

SIDNEY (sir Philip), was born Nov. 29, 1554, at Penshurst, in Kent, the seat of his father, sir Henry Sidney, who was the friend of Edward VI., and, in the reign of Elizabeth, became lord deputy of Ireland. The mother of sir Philip was Mary daughter of the duke of Northumberland. While at Paris, the French king made him gentleman of his bed-chamber; but the distinction was rendered offensive by the massacre of the protestants, which took place while Sidney resided there, in the house of the English ambassador. When the danger was over, he went to Frankfort, and next to Vienna, where he distinguished himself by his skill in martial exercises. In 1576 he was sent ambassador to Vienna, ostensibly to condole with the emperor, on the death of his father; but secretly to promote a league among the protestant states against Spain, which object he achieved. In 1590 a tournament was held at court, where, though Sidney displayed his prowess to great advantage, the victory was adjudged to the earl of Oxford, which produced a challenge; but the

abel being prevented by the queen's commands, our hero retired to Wiltton, the seat of his brother-in-law, the earl of Pembroke. In 1585 Sidney was named as a candidate for the kingdom of Poland, but the queen interposed her authority against it, "refusing," says an historian, to "further his advancement, out of fear that she should lose the jewel of her times." The protestants of the Netherlands, having solicited the assistance of England to relieve them from the Spanish yoke, a military force was sent over under the command of sir Philip, who on his arrival at Flushing, was appointed colonel of all the Dutch regiments. Not long after, the earl of Leicester joined him with additional troops, and Sidney was promoted to the rank of general of the horse. On the 22nd of September, 1586, he fell in with a convoy sent by the enemy to Zutphen, and though the English troops were inferior to the enemy, they gained the victory; but it was dearly purchased by the loss of their commander, who, after one horse was shot under him, mounted another, and continued the fight, till he received a ball in the left thigh, which proved fatal. As he was borne from the field, languid with the loss of blood, he asked for water, but just as the bottle was put to his lips, seeing a dying soldier looking wistfully at it, he resigned it, saying "this man's necessity is greater than mine." He died on the 15th October, and his body was brought over and interred in St. Paul's cathedral.

SIDON an ancient city of Phœnicia, with a famous harbour, now called Said. It is situated on the shores of the Mediterranean, at the distance of about fifty miles from Damascus, and twenty-four from Tyre. The people of Sidon are well known for their industry, their skill in arithmetic, in astronomy, and commercial affairs, and in sea voyages. They, however, had the character of being very dishonest. Their women were peculiarly happy in working embroidery. The invention of glass, of linen, and of a beautiful purple dye, is attributed to them. The city of Sidon was taken by Ochus, king of Persia, after the inhabitants had burnt themselves and the city,

B. C. 351; but it was afterwards rebuilt.

SIEVERSHAUSEN, a petty village of Germany, in Hanover, remarkable for a battle, in 1553, between Albert of Brandenburg and the celebrated Maurice of Saxony, in which the latter received a mortal wound.

SIGETH, or ZIGETH, a strong town of Lower Hungary. It had a very strong castle, and is fortified with three ditches and as many walls. Solyman II., emperor of the Turks, died at the siege of it, the 4th of September, which was the second month of the siege, and the place was taken three days after, in 1566; Nicholas Esdrin Count of Serini, who was governor of it, being slain in a sally he made at the head of his remaining forces. It was again surrendered to the emperor, January 15th, 1688, at which time the Imperialists took eighty-five pieces of cannon.

SIGISMUND, Emperor, king of Hungary and Bohemia, was of the House of Luxembourg, and the son of Charles IV., and brother of Wenceslaus. He was crowned in 1392. His enemies called Bajazet, emperor of the Turks, into Hungary; upon which Sigismund received considerable assistance from the French, under the command of John of Burgundy; but the christians were repulsed by the Turks in 1396. On this disaster the king wandered a long time in misery, and unknown, at Constantinople and Rhodes; At length he was taken prisoner by his own subjects, and was not restored to his kingdom till 1401. In the meantime the emperor Wenceslaus having rendered himself unpopular by his vices, Robert, prince Palatine of the Rhine, and duke of Bavaria, was put into his place; who dying in 1410, Sigismund was chosen Emperor. His brother Wenceslaus left him the kingdom of Bohemia, but he had much trouble in obtaining possession of it, being opposed by the Hussites, who several times defeated his forces. He died in Moravia the 8th of December, 1437. Sigismund was a liberal prince, and a patron of learning.

SIGISMUND, the first of that name king of Poland, for his extraordinary achievements, surnamed the

HISTORY.

Great, was the son of Cathair II., and brother of John Albert and Alexander, all of them kings, the former dying in 1501, and the latter in 1506. He gave several most signal marks of his valour and prudence; and on the death of his brother, he was without any dispute advanced to the throne. He defeated the Russians, and drove them from Lithuania in 1519. He also extended the borders of his dominions, and was highly esteemed by the princes of his time. He died in 1548.

SIGISMUND II., surnamed Augustus, the son of Sigismund I., King of Poland, succeeded his father in 1548. He defeated the Swedes and Russians, and died in 1572.

SIGISMUND III., son of John III. King of Sweden and of Catharine, daughter of Sigismund I. was born in 1566. The Poles offered him the crown the 9th of August, 1587, and he was admitted, to the exclusion of Maximilian of Austria, who had been chosen by a party of the lords; and being settled in that throne, upon the news of his father's death, he went and took possession of that of Sweden, the 19th of February, 1594. This king was a zealous romanist, upon which account the Swedes entertained no great respect for him. Charles, the king's uncle soon obtained the crown, which afterwards proved the occasion of a long and grievous war, and unsuccessful to Sigismund. He had also great contests with the Tartars and the Russians, from whom he took Smolensko, after two years siege. He died in 1632, after a reign of 45 years.

SIGUENZA, anciently **SEGONTIUM**, a city of Spain. A battle was fought here between Pompey and Sertorius; and in the beginning of the seventh century, the Goths were defeated here by a Roman army.

SILESIA, a large and important province of the Prussian dominions. The aborigines of Silesia appear to have been the Quadi and Lygii. It was ceded to the sons of Boleslaus II. in the eleventh century; and was subdued by the kings of Bohemia in the fourteenth century. Silesia passed with Bohemia to the house of Austria in the sixteenth century, and continued

in its undisturbed possession until the death of Charles VI. in 1740, led to a general attack on dominions considered comparatively defenceless when transmitted to a female. Frederick II. endeavoured to obtain the western part of Silesia. Austria, with the aid of England, took up arms. The contest terminated in the cession of Silesia to Prussia. The peace of Hubertsburg, in 1763, left Silesia conclusively in the hands of Frederick. In 1807, it was overrun by the French; but it was not separated at the peace of Tilsit from the Prussian territory.

SIMOGA, a town of the south of India, province of Mysore. In the year 1790, a battle was fought in the vicinity of this place, between one of the armies of Tippoo Sultan and the Mahrattas, aided by a British detachment, under the command of Captain Little, in which the latter were victorious. On this occasion, the Mahrattas plundered the town, and carried off several of the women; they also plundered the convent of Kundali Suami. This unfortunate town was again plundered by the Mahrattas in 1798. In the following year it was made over to the young rajah of Mysore.

SIMON MACCABÆUS, Captain of the Jews, was the son of Matathias, and the brother of Judas Maccabæus, and of Jonathan, whom he succeeded as general of the Jews, and by his courage and prudence restored his countrymen to their liberty, who had almost continually been tributaries to the Persians or Greeks, since their return from the Babylonish captivity. He took the citadel of Sion, and afterwards fortified the mount whereon the temple was built, and made his abode there. Under his government Judea enjoyed great rest and tranquillity; the Lacedæmonians sent ambassadors to Simon to renew their ancient alliance with the Jews. Antiochus VII. surnamed Soter, king of the Syrians, desired his assistance to drive Tryphon out of his dominions, which he had usurped, and engaged him by ratifying several privileges which his father Demetrius had granted the Jews. But soon after finding himself at the head of a great army, he ridiculed Simon and his assist-

ance, and demanded the cities of Joppa, Gazara, and the citadel of Sion, or instead of them a thousand talents of gold. Simon having refused to answer his unjust demands, he sent an army into Judea, under the command of Cendebeus, which was defeated by the sons of Simon, who lived not long after; for Ptolomy, his son-in-law, traitorously murdered him at a feast, with two of his sons, A.M. 2318, after he had governed the Jews eight or nine years.

SIROES, king of Persia, was the eldest son of Chosroes II. who having declared his younger son his successor, so enraged Siroes, that he cast his father into a prison, and fifteen days after caused him and all his children to be put to death, in 628. After this, Siroes concluded a peace with the emperor Heraclius, and sent him back the Holy Cross, with the patriarch of Jerusalem, and other Christians which his father had made slaves. He died in 629, having reigned but one year; and Adeser or Adbesor his son succeeded him.

SISIGAMBIS, or **SISYGAMBIS**, the mother of Darius, the last king of Persia. She was taken prisoner by Alexander the Great at the battle of Issus, with the rest of the royal family. The conqueror treated her with uncommon tenderness and attention; he saluted her as his own mother, and what he had sternly denied to the petitions of his favourites and ministers, he often granted to the intercession of Sisigambis. The regard of the queen for Alexander was uncommon, and, indeed, she no sooner heard that he was dead, than she killed herself, unwilling to survive the loss of so generous an enemy; though she had seen, with less concern, the fall of her son's kingdom, the ruin of his subjects, and himself murdered by his servants. She had also lost in one day, her husband and eighty of her brothers, whom Oechus had assassinated to make himself master of the kingdom of Persia.

SISYPHUS, the founder and first king of Corinth. He likewise built, or peopled Ephyra, A.M. 2643, where his descendants reigned about 308 years, till they were overcome by the Heraclides in 2951.

SIXTUS V. (Pope), was born in 1521, in the signory of Montalto,

where his father, Francis Peretti, was a gardener. At the age of fourteen, he was allowed to make his profession, and in 1545 he received priest's orders, and took the name of Father Montalto. His popularity as a preacher procured him many friends, and in 1556 he was appointed inquisitor-general at Venice; where, however, he gave so much offence by his severity, as to be obliged to return to Rome. Pius V. made him general of his order, next bishop of St. Agatha, and in 1570 raised him to the purple. Hitherto Montalto had been remarked for his haughty demeanour, but now he assumed quite an opposite character, and appeared all humility, meekness, and condescension. He carried this hypocrisy so far, as to treat his family with neglect, telling them, "that he was dead to his relations and the world." He took no part in political contentions, and the other cardinals were so completely imposed upon by him, that they called him "The ass of La Marca." In this way he went on several years, adding to his deceit, the pretence of bodily infirmities. At length Gregory XIII. died, in 1585, and the election of a new pope was contested between three cardinals, whose respective interests were so equal, that they agreed to choose Montalto; but when they informed him of their intention, he fell into such a fit of coughing, that they thought he would have expired. The election, however, took place, and no sooner was it announced, than the pope threw his staff into the middle of the chapel, and began the "Te Deum" with a loud voice, to the astonishment of all who heard him. He took the name of Sixtus V., and though he administered justice with rigorous severity, the relaxed state of manners called for it, and no one could tax him with partiality. Among other things, he caused the Vulgate edition of the Bible to be revised, and he even went so far as to have an Italian version of it printed, which excited great alarm among the bigoted catholics. Towards foreign powers he behaved with spirit, and took away from their ambassadors the liberty of granting protections, saying, "That he was determined no one should reign at Rome but himself." His private character was free

HISTORY

from reproach, and the only faults charged upon him were, the hypocritical course he took to gain the papacy, and the inexorable rigour with which he acted while he enjoyed it. He died August 27, 1590.

SKIPTON, a market-town of England, in Yorkshire. It appears to have been of considerable importance during the civil wars between Charles I. and his parliament. It was first garrisoned in the royal cause, and is said to have held the surrounding country for some time in great awe; but being vigorously besieged by the parliamentary army, it at length surrendered in 1645. In the following year its works and defences were destroyed by order of parliament.

SLANE, a town of Ireland, in the county of Meath. Here was very early an abbey of regular canons. We are told that Dagobert, king of Austrasia, when only ten years old, was seized by Grimvaid Mayor, shorn as a monk, and confined in this abbey, where he remained twenty years, when he was re-called to his kingdom. This town suffered much from the invasions of the Danes. In 1170 and 1175, it was taken, sacked, and burnt by the English, under earl Strongbow.

SLAVE TRADE, an infernal traffic in the human species, which has been carried on in all ages by powerful nations against weak ones, by which a property has been assumed of man over his fellow-creatures. Conquerors in general, have considered the conquered as slaves, and used them as such; and whole nations have occasionally been carried into captivity, and sold in the country of the conquerors for the purpose of performing the severer labours. The Greeks and Romans followed these practices, and filled their most polished cities with more slaves than freemen. Down to so late a period as the year 1000, Britain and Ireland were visited by foreign ships, for the purpose of buying children; and it is recorded by an early chronicler, that public sales of them used to be held at Bristol for the Italian market. On the discovery of America, the vast tracts of land which it presented for cultivation, and the inadequate number of European settlers, led some Portuguese merchants, in the sixteenth century, to

kidnap on the coasts of Africa the helpless and unsuspecting blacks; and at length a regular system was organized, in concert with the unprincipled kings on the coast, for kidnapping each others subjects, and a regular traffic was commenced in these unhappy victims by all the Christian nations; among whom, we blush to state, the English stood pre-eminent. Africa was thus robbed of a population of half a million per annum, for upwards of a century, till the system was arrested by the intrepid spirit of Granville Sharp, a private English gentleman, who, in concert with a society of Friends, and other philanthropists, among whom the name of Wilberforce ought for ever to stand conspicuous, exposed to the world the horrors of the traffic. After various struggles against fiscal and mercantile cupidity, a law passed the British parliament, under the administration of Mr. Fox, in 1806, prohibiting its further prosecution; and the British government has since prevailed on several of the powers of Europe to co-operate in its suppression. We wish we could say that the law has proved effectual, for we fear the covert practices of smugglers have led to as great, if not greater, enormities, than the open trade. But it has been sufficiently stigmatised, and we hope to be the last historians who may have to record it as an existing evil.

SMERDIS, a son of Cyrus, put to death by order of his brother Cambyses. As his execution was not public, and as it was only known to one of the officers of the monarch, one of the Magi of Persia, who was himself called Smerdis, and who greatly resembled the deceased prince, declared himself king, at the death of Cambyses. After he had reigned for six months with universal approbation, seven noblemen of Persia conspired to dethrone him, and when this had been executed with success, they chose one of their number to reign in the usurper's place, B. C. 521.

SMOLENSKO, a considerable town of European Russia, and capital of the government of the same name. The Russians made, here, their first serious opposition to the advance of the French, in the campaign of 1812. An obstinate conflict took place on the 16th and 17th of August, in which the

town was bombarded, and set on fire. The Russians were compelled to fall back, and the French extinguished the flames; on quitting it in their disastrous retreat in November following, they blew up part of the works.

SMYRNA, an extensive commercial city of Asia Minor, said to be the birth-place of Homer. It was originally a colony from Ephesus, and soon attained such celebrity, that it was received as the thirteenth city of Ionia. This original city was destroyed by the Lydians; and Antigonus and Lysimachus rebuilt the city, though not on the same spot. It has since been considered as the emporium of the Levant, but has been much injured by earthquakes, plagues, and fires. In April, 1730, it was nearly destroyed by an earthquake, and by a fire, June 20, 1743; had the plague, 1743, 1752; the Armenian quarter was burnt, May 14, 1753; had the plague, 1758, 1760; dreadful fires, in 1763 and 1772; and earthquakes and fire, in 1778; in March, 1796, 4000 shops, two large mosques, two public baths, and all the magazines and provisions were destroyed by fire; and in 1814, the plague swept off from 50,000 to 60,000 inhabitants.

SOBIESKI, (John), ascended the throne of Poland in 1674. Having exhibited a remarkable instance of generosity and benevolence, by voluntarily providing a maintenance for the queen dowager, who violently opposed his elevation; and having concluded an advantageous peace with the Turks, Sobieski applied himself to re-establish the finances of Poland. He died of an apoplexy, after a reign of twenty-two years; and was justly considered as the most accomplished sovereign that ever sat on the throne of Poland.

SOCRATES, the most celebrated philosopher of all antiquity, was a native of Athens. Philosophy soon became the study of Socrates; and under Archelaus and Anaxagoras he laid the foundation of that exemplary virtue which succeeding ages have ever loved and venerated. He appeared like the rest of his countrymen in the field of battle; he fought with boldness and intrepidity; and to his courage two of his friends and disciples, Xenophon and Alcibiades, owed the preservation of their lives.

But the character of Socrates appears more conspicuous and dignified as a philosopher and moralist, than as a warrior. His principles were enforced by the unparalleled example of an affectionate husband, a tender parent, a warlike soldier, and a patriotic citizen in Socrates, soon after the celebrated sects of the Platonists, the Peripatetics, the Academics, Cyrenaics, Stoics, &c. arose.

SOGDIANA, now Usbec or Sagatay, was separated from Bactriana by the Oxus, stretching along its right or northern side. The name subsists in the valley of Al Sogd, which, for its fertility, is one of the four cantons distinguished by the name of Ferdous or Paradise. Maracanda preserves its name in Samarcand, situated in the valley of Sogd. Tamerlane made it the capital of his empire. It is defended by a vast exterior wall. South of it was Petra, now Shadman, a rocky fortress besieged by Alexander. The country which belonged to the Chorasmi is now Karam, or Khoarezm; their capital was Gorgo, now Urgen.

SOISSONS, (battle of), gained by Clovis against Siagarius, the Roman general, in Gaul, in 485, which confirms the power of the Franks in that country, and is by many historians deemed the true era of the French monarchy.

SOLIMAN, the first of that name, emperor of the Turks, was the son of Orchan. He made a league with the emperor of Greece, and defeated the Bulgarians; and with the same success made himself master of Adrianople, and several other places. He died by a fall from his horse, in 1362 or 1358.

SOLIMAN II. succeeded his father Selim I. in 1520. Gazelles, governor of Syria, rebelling after the death of Selim, and having made himself master of a part of Egypt, was defeated by Soliman's generals, who himself resolved to turn his arms against the Christians. Accordingly, in 1521 he took Belgrade, and the next year Rhodes. This victory was followed with the revolt of the Egyptians and some other nations, which were defeated by Ibrahim Bassa; and Soliman, in the meantime, being advanced with his army into Hungary, won the battle of Mohacs, in 1526, where Lewis

II. king of Hungary, lost his life in a morass. He made several other expeditions into this kingdom, where he took Buda, Pest, Gran, and some other places, and died there himself at the siege of Zigoth or Sigeth, the 4th of September, 1566, being seventy-two years of age. In 1529 he besieged Vienna, but without success; and in 1535, he took and plundered Tauris; and his generals subdued several cities and provinces in Europe, Asia, and Africa.

SOLIMAN, (Hasein), the ninth caliph or successor of Mahomet, succeeded his brother Gualid, who died in 718. Having prepared a great navy, to execute the design his brother had formed of besieging the city of Constantinople, he ordered Marven, the son of Mahomet, to enter Thracia with a powerful army, and invest Constantinople by land, whilst he attacked it by sea. Marven having accordingly besieged the city, Soliman came before it with 1500 vessels; but a violent storm arising, he was forced to retire with his navy to the coasts of Thrace; and because their great vessels could not so suddenly secure themselves in any safe harbour, the emperor sent some ships provided with fire-works, who burnt or sunk the greatest part of them, and the rest were wrecked near the walls of Constantinople. This so afflicted Soliman, that he died soon after, in 721.

SOLOMON, one of the most illustrious kings of Israel, was born A. M. 2971, and succeeded his father David. In the fourth year of his reign, he commenced building his celebrated temple, which he completed in seven years. He also built the walls of Jerusalem, fortified several other cities, and contributed much to the prosperity of his dominions. He died in 3209, after forty years' reign.

SOLON, one of the seven wise men of Greece, was born at Salamis, and educated at Athens. After he had devoted part of his time to philosophical and political studies, Solon travelled over the greatest part of Greece, but at his return home he was distressed with the dissensions which were kindled among his countrymen. All fixed their eyes upon Solon as a deliverer, and he was unanimously elected archon and sovereign legislator.

SOLWAY MOSS, an extensive mo-

orass in Scotland, at the head of the Solway Frith. Near this the Scots voluntarily surrendered to a small party of the English, in 1542.

SOMERS, (John, Lord), a lawyer and statesman, was born at Worcester, March 4, 1650. In 1688, he was one of the counsel for the seven bishops; and being chosen a member of the convention parliament, he distinguished himself at the conference of the two houses, on the question about the abdication of the throne. When the new government was established, he became, successively, solicitor and attorney-general, and in 1693, lord-keeper. He was next raised to the peerage, appointed chancellor, and rewarded with lands in the county of Surrey. In 1700 he was deprived of the seals, and soon after impeached by the commons; but a misunderstanding arising between the two houses, the lords pronounced a verdict of acquittal. Lord Somers projected the union between England and Scotland, and was one of the managers appointed to carry that measure into effect. In 1706, he was made president of the council; but went out of office again in 1710; after which he led a retired life, and died April 26, 1716.

SOMERSET, a maritime county of England. During the civil wars of Charles I. various skirmishes were fought here between the royal and parliamentary armies; and a general engagement at Lansdown; and this was the principal theatre of the duke of Monmouth's insurrection, and of the cruelties subsequently committed by Jeffries and others.

SOMERSET, (duke of), became Prime Minister in the reign of Henry VI. He was not long the favourite of the public; for, as under him the French provinces had been lost, he became the object of their animosity and hatred. The commons ventured to present a petition against him, Lord Dudley and several others of inferior rank, praying the king to remove them from his person and councils. The duke of York's party, when they saw this petition was of no avail, contrived during the king's indisposition, to send Somerset to the Tower; from which, however, he was released on the recovery of the king's health. He was slain in the battle of St. Albans.

BOOTY, a town of Bengal, where an action was fought in the year 1763, between the British and the troops of Cassim Aly Khan, in which the latter were defeated.

SOSISTRATUS, a tyrant of Syracuse, in the age of Agathocles. He invited Pyrrhus into Sicily, and afterwards revolted from him. He was at last removed by Hermocrates.

SOUTH CAROLINA, one of the United States of North America. The first settlers of South Carolina emigrated from England in 1670, and the celebrated John Locke was engaged to frame for them a constitution and body of laws: his system of government, however, was not well suited to their condition and views. The revocation of the edict of Nantz, contributed greatly to the prosperity of this state, more by the respectability of the French protestants who established themselves there, than by their numbers. The inhabitants, in consequence of the hostilities of the savage Indians towards them, frequently laboured under severe hardships. This state of things continued till 1763, when a peace was concluded. In the revolutionary contest, this state took a conspicuous part, and suffered much. Charleston was twice besieged by the enemy. The victory of Eutaw Springs, in 1781, relieved the state from the pressure of the war, and contributed to the successful issue of the conflict.

SOUTHWOLD, a market town of England, in the county of Suffolk. Southwold Bay, or Sele Bay, is noted in history as the scene of a sanguinary naval engagement, which took place in 1672; between the combined fleet of England and France, on the one side, and that of the Dutch, on the other; the former consisting of one hundred and one men of war, and the latter of ninety-one. The issue of the day was rather uncertain; the English lost four ships, and the Dutch three. In 1666, also, a famous sea fight took place here, between the English fleet of one hundred and fourteen men of war and frigates; and the Dutch fleet of 103 men of war, when the latter were defeated with the loss of seventy ships.

SPAIN. The clouds which cover the primitive history of Spain, do not begin to be dissipated, till the period when the Phœnicians arrived, and formed establishments in the country,

before unvisited and unknown. It is supposed that they landed in the island of St. Peter, where they constructed the temple of Hercules, the remains of which are still to be seen when the sea ebbs more than usual. Soon afterwards, the town of Gades, or Gadir, was erected; Calpe and Abyla became renowned for the two columns denominated the pillars of Hercules, on which the Phœnicians engraved the inscription, *Non plus ultra*. The Greeks, the pupils of the Phœnicians in the art of navigation, did not fail to share with them the advantages of this discovery. They established an extensive commerce in Spain, and founded several cities, among the rest Ampurias and the unfortunate Saguntum; but the Carthaginians, possessing still greater skill and power, soon made themselves masters of the whole peninsula; and such they would have remained, had not the Romans, who alone were able to dispute with them this brilliant conquest, at length succeeded in their efforts to wrest it from them. In the hope of escaping from servitude, the Spaniards sometimes endeavoured to defend themselves; but more frequently deceived by the phantom of a generous alliance, they faithfully promoted the views of their different oppressors. Thus, three cities chose rather to perish than to surrender; Saguntum, from attachment to the Romans; Astapa in Bœtica, to the Carthaginians, and Numantia for the sake of liberty. Exhausted by all these calamities, Spain at length began to breathe, and by degrees to recruit her strength under the peaceable dominion of the Romans. Induced by the fertility of her soil, and the richness and variety of her productions, that people founded numerous colonies in Spain; military roads were opened in every quarter; aqueducts conveyed to the cities the tribute of the waters; triumphal arches reminded the conquerors of their glory; theatres and circuses effaced from the minds of the vanquished, the memory of their misfortunes. Saguntum saw its walls reared once more; Merida, Tarragona, Cordova, Salamanca, Segovia, and other towns, admired the splendour of their new edifices, the glorious testimonies of the predilection of Rome for this country, the rival of

HISTORY.

Italy. This happy administration did not last long. Rome, when mistress of the world, soon became as odious as Carthage. Spain had its Clodius and its Verres; and the most beautiful province of the empire of the Cæsars was also the most wretched. The Asturians and Cantabrians alone preserved their independence, amid their mountains. Augustus undertook their subjugation; they defended themselves, and most of them perished sword in hand. The poets of Rome celebrated this cruel victory, but posterity admires only its victims. Spain was subject to the Romans till toward the conclusion of the fourth century. The northern nations, after having ravaged the other countries of Europe, penetrated into Spain during the reign of Honorius: the Suevi made themselves masters of Galicia, and part of Portugal; the Alani and Vandals of Boetia. The Goths, following at the heels of these ferocious conquerors, compelled the Alani and Vandals to retire to Africa; the Suevi made a longer resistance, but, being at length conquered by Leovigildus, they ceased to be a distinct people, and all Spain received law from the Goths. This invasion of barbarous nations gave a mortal blow to the fine arts in a country covered with their master-pieces: yet what numismatic riches, how many monuments have escaped the devastation! The Goths, tranquil possessors of Spain, and enlightened by the gospel, begun to be civilized; but the climate which softened their character, repose which enervated their courage, prepared an easy victory for new conquerors. The cruelty of king Vitiza, who died in 711, and the weakness of Roderic, his successor, accelerated the fatal moment, and Spain fell a prey to enemies till then unknown. The Arabs, an ancient, wandering people, inhabiting deserts, joining the Moors, so called from their native country, Mauritania, made an irruption into the south of Spain, as the Goths had previously done in the north. The fate of Spain was decided in the unfortunate battle of Xeres de la Frontera, where Roderic lost his throne and his life. The conquerors, finding no other obstacles, took possession of all Spain, except those same Pyrenees which had so long preserved their ancient inhabitants from the

Roman yoke. These mountains, and their caverns, afforded a refuge to such of the Spanish Goths as, collected by Pelagius, a prince of the blood-royal of that nation, were able to avoid the yoke of the Mussulmen. This second invasion, which might naturally be supposed to have left the native Spaniards no trace of their laws, their customs, and national qualities, produced a contrary effect: so amply have the blessings bestowed on this happy country seemed always to compensate the inhabitants for the severity of fortune. The Moors were not long before they felt that influence which had softened the manners of the Goths, and taught them to relish the charms of a tranquil life. No sooner were the new conquerors happy, than they ceased to be barbarous. The principle of civilization was developed among them with extraordinary rapidity; the love of letters ennobled their ideas, and purified their taste, without diminishing their courage. At Seville, at Grenada, at Cordova, schools and public libraries were opened; and while Christian Europe was covered with the clouds of ignorance, the genius of Averroes, and a multitude of learned men, enlightened the civilized Mussulmen. Not content with patronizing the sciences, the moorish kings, themselves, cultivated them. How brilliant were the reigns of the Abdarhamans and the Mahometts! Those princes united the private virtues with military qualities; they were poets, historians, mathematicians, philosophers, and great captains; and many of them deserved a still more honourable appellation, that of the best of kings. At this new epoch of the history of Spain, a new taste was introduced into the arts and gave a direction to architecture in particular. The ancient structures of the Goths did not harmonize with the customs and the religion of the Moors. The latter, indifferent to external decorations, reserved all their ingenuity for the interior of their edifices. There they lavished whatever was calculated to delight the senses and to accord with a sedentary and voluptuous life. Hence the singular magnificence of their palaces and their mosques, that richness in their ornaments, that finish in the smallest details, which far surpass the beauty of the whole. The

arts were thus developing themselves among the Moors, when a spark concealed in the Asturias, produced a new conflagration, which extended to all Spain, about 718. Pelagius having fled to the mountains, not only defended himself there with courage, but under the banners of the cross, ventured to conduct his troops into the countries contiguous to his retreat. This illustrious man, concerning whom we have, unfortunately but few particulars, had collected all the nobles of the Asturias and the rest of Spain. This force, which long proved invincible, was the instrument of the conquests of different chiefs, the ablest of whom made themselves sovereigns. By them were founded the kingdoms of Castile, Leon, Arragon, and Navarre, successively conquered from the Moors. This war, which continued several centuries, has, alternately, the air of history and of romance. It consists of battles, sieges, assaults, and still more frequently of tournaments, banquets, and challenges, given and accepted with equal audacity. In these celebrated lists, triumphed the heroes whose exploits are recorded in the Spanish romances, and of these, Rodrigo de Bivar, surnamed the Cid, particularly distinguished himself. Equal in virtue, and superior in power, to Bayard, he was, like him, the object of the veneration, not only of his brethren in arms, but also of the enemies of his country. Reduced to the single kingdom of Grenada, the Moors there maintained themselves for several centuries; but, at length, expelled from their last asylum, they were obliged to withdraw to Africa in 1492. This important event was reserved to crown the felicity of Ferdinand and Isabella, and the arms of Gonsalvo de Cordova, seconded by other chiefs of equal celebrity. Sovereigns of Spain and of the New World, Ferdinand and Isabella, after having attained the pinnacle of prosperity, had the misfortune to leave their immense possessions to a foreign dynasty. They formed the dowry of their daughter Joan, wife of Philip the fair, archduke of Austria, and mother of Charles V. Fortune, by her extraordinary favours, and Cardinal Ximenes, by a wise administration, threw a lustre upon the reign of Charles V., at one

and the same time emperor of Germany and king of Spain. The talents and genius of this prince, seemed to have destined him for universal monarchy; and, to his own misfortune and that of the world, he aspired to it. Palled, however, with the pomp and pageantries of grandeur, he chose to end his days in retirement, and resigned the crown to his son Philip, in 1556. Don Philip concluded a truce with the crown of France, for five years, but was compelled to take up arms at the moment when most of the European states were rejoicing in the prospect of a durable repose. Soon after a most sanguinary war ensued, which lasted between two and three years, and depopulated some of the finest provinces of Spain. At length, the Christians obtained a decisive victory; and, upon the death of the Moorish prince, the public tranquillity was restored. In 1588, in consequence of some depredations committed in Europe and America, by the English, Philip resolved to take ample revenge on queen Elizabeth, and ordered the whole maritime force of Spain to be assembled for a descent upon her dominions. (See *Armada*.) Philip III. ascended the throne in 1597. After the death of Elizabeth, peace was concluded between England and Spain. During this reign, the Moors were, at several times, transported into Africa; and Spain sustained a loss of about 600,000 useful subjects. Philip IV. possessed good natural abilities; and though the greatest part of his reign was clouded by misfortunes or disappointments, he certainly was desirous of increasing the grandeur of the Spanish monarchy. The young king, Charles II., was inaugurated in 1686, and displayed promising abilities. Charles II. was twice married; but he had the mortification of seeing himself without offspring. At length, he resolved to make a will in favour of the electoral house of Bavaria; but the young prince whom he had destined for his successor died soon after the arrangement. Upon hearing that the different powers of Europe had actually made a partition of his territories, in order, as they said, to avoid a general war, the king was so incensed, that he left his crown, by a new will, to Philip, duke of Anjou, grandson of his eldest sister and

HISTORY.

of Louis XIV. He expired in the thirty-ninth year of his age, and the thirty-fifth of his reign; and in him ended a branch of Austria which had given five sovereigns to the Spanish nation. Philip of Anjou was solemnly proclaimed on the 24th of November, 1700. During the absence of the king in Italy with the French troops, a league was formed against the house of Bourbon, the object of which was to wrest the crown of Spain from Philip V., and to place it on the head of Charles, archduke of Austria, who was also descended from a princess of Spain. This competitor arrived in Portugal, which had also joined the league, and assumed the name of Charles III. in 1704, and, being supported by the English, he immediately commenced the campaign. The fate of these two princes, during the course of the war, was as various as singular; they expelled each other alternately from the capital. Philip V. died after a turbulent reign of forty-three years. Ferdinand VI. succeeded him, in 1744. He died after a reign of fifteen years. As Ferdinand died without issue, the Spanish crown devolved on his brother Charles III. in 1759, then king of Naples and the Two Sicilies, who transferred his Italian possessions to his third son, and hastened to Madrid, to receive the homage of his new subjects. Charles seemed to devote his whole attention to the internal economy of his dominions; but his zeal for the family compact soon roused him into action, and induced him to proclaim war against Great Britain and Portugal in 1761. However, this war was unsuccessful, and on the tenth of February, 1763, a treaty of peace was concluded between the courts of Madrid, Lisbon, and London. When the war between Great Britain and her American colonies had subsisted for some time, and France had taken part with the latter, Spain was also induced to commence hostilities with England. Accordingly, they laid siege to Gibraltar, and made some great naval preparations in 1782; but all their exertions proved vain and ineffectual. (See *Gibraltar*.) The sad catastrophe of their armada before Gibraltar, the repeated frustration of all their designs upon Jamaica, and the very embarrassed

state of their finances, induced the Spaniards to terminate so long, expensive, and sanguinary a war, and to conclude a peace with Great Britain in 1783. Charles IV. ascended the throne of Spain in 1789, and declared war against France in 1793. After making every effort, his catholic majesty concluded a treaty. Spain was afterwards drawn into an alliance with the French republic, and persuaded to commence hostilities against Great Britain. In the summer of 1797, a Spanish fleet, of twenty-seven sail of the line, was appointed to form a junction with the French fleet at Brest; and, after being reinforced by a numerous squadron of Dutch vessels, an attempt was to be made on some part of the British dominions. However, before the intended junction could be effected, the Spanish fleet was met by admiral Jarvis, near cape St. Vincent, and an engagement ensued, in which, notwithstanding the great inequality, the English captured four of the enemy's vessels. In 1801 the Spaniards declared war against Portugal, and entered Alentejo from different points, with an army of nearly 40,000 men. However, his catholic majesty embraced the earliest opportunity of terminating this affair. In 1804, the court of Madrid issued a declaration of war against England, and made great preparations for prosecuting hostilities with vigour and effect. After the junction of the French Brest fleet with that of Spain, at Ferrol, the united armament experienced several signal defeats from the victorious British navy, which terminated with the ever-memorable battle of Trafalgar, Oct. 21, 1805. In 1807, a treaty was concluded between the sovereigns of France and Spain, the object of which was a partition of the kingdom of Portugal. After obtaining possession of the capital of Portugal, and securing free access for his troops to every part of the peninsula, the emperor of France waited for a favourable opportunity of rendering himself master of the whole. In 1808, Charles IV. formed the design of removing the seat of government to Mexico, in South America. No sooner had this transpired, than an attack was made on the palace of Godoy, at Aranjuez; and though the prince of peace effected his escape,

the king found it necessary to dismiss him from all his employments. The populace, however, still remaining in a state of insurrection at Aranjuez and Madrid, and the king being deprived of his prime minister, Charles published another decree, in which he announced that he had abdicated the throne in favour of his son, the prince of Asturias. The first act of Ferdinand VII. was to issue an edict, in which he declared his intention of confiscating the property of the prince of peace. Murat, to whom the command of the French forces in Spain had been confided, no sooner heard of the occurrences at Aranjuez, than he hastened the march of his army towards the capital. Anxious to conciliate the favour of Bonaparte, and allured by the promises of his generals, Murat and Savary, Ferdinand was induced to quit Madrid, and to repair to Bayonne, the place chosen by the emperor of France for the accomplishment of his designs. Murat employed every artifice to persuade Charles and his queen to depart for Bayonne; and, after liberating the prince of peace, the royal party left the Spanish capital, and repaired to the frontier of France. Although Ferdinand was induced, by the threat of death, to sign a resignation of the throne in favour of his father, by whom all its rights were transferred to the emperor Napoleon, in 1808. At Madrid, the whole armed populace of the capital of Spain now rose against 16,000 French troops, with Murat at their head. A dreadful carnage took place, and terminated in the defeat of the insurgents, and the disarming of the whole city. A junta was summoned to meet at Bayonne, where a new constitution for Spain was laid before them for their acceptance; Joseph Bonaparte, the new king, transferred from the throne of Naples to that of Spain, appeared in royal state. Thus was effected one of the most singular and unprincipled revolutions in a powerful kingdom, of which history affords a record. No sooner, however, was the French usurpation known, than an explosion of indignant patriotism burst forth from one extremity of Spain to the other. Provincial juntas were established, which gave a regular organization to the popular efforts; and the

junta at Seville was the first to proclaim Ferdinand VII. and war against France. The friendship and assistance of Great Britain were solicited, and immediately granted. A most desperate warfare now commenced. The success of the Spaniards was various, but the French, with king Joseph at their head, in a short time found themselves obliged to evacuate Madrid. A supreme junta was formed from the juntas of the different provinces; and the solemn installation of this body took place at the palace of Aranjuez. The first act of the supreme junta was to appoint a new council of war, consisting of five members; and the national force was divided into three great bodies, for the purpose of acting in the east, in the west, and in the centre of the kingdom. Napoleon now determined in person to change the fortune of the war; and having put his veteran troops in motion for Spain, he proceeded to Bayonne, and thence to the head-quarters of the French army at Vittoria. The military force of Spain was wholly unable to meet, upon equal terms, French armies commanded by the most consummate generals; and the campaign which followed the arrival of Napoleon, was a series of victories to the one, and of defeats to the other. The French appeared intent on subjugating the whole country; but Napoleon was obliged to leave Spain, in consequence of a breach between France and Austria. His generals, however, conducted the war in Spain with so much ability, that the cause of Spanish independence was rendered almost desperate; and in 1810, king Joseph issued a manifesto, in which he affected to consider the contest as decided. The cortes of Spain assembled at Cadiz. This body of national representatives was elected by the provinces, cities, and provincial juntas; and they were termed the General or Extraordinary Cortes, and to them was intrusted the sovereign power. They swore fealty to king Ferdinand VII. and declared the renunciations at Bayonne null and void. They took the title of majesty till the arrival of Ferdinand, and assumed the legislative power of the state. The war was still prosecuted by the Spaniards, but not with sufficient vigour; and

HISTORY.

the French actively employed their superiority of force in extending their conquests through a considerable part of Spain. In the course of two months, the Spaniards lost the fortresses of Tortosa, Olivenca, and Badajos, without any sufficient reason. The reduction of these places was followed by that of Tarragona, in which every outrage and cruelty suffered in a town taken by storm, was inflicted upon the inhabitants; and, by this conquest, the French became possessed of the whole coast of Catalonia. However, Lord Wellington, with the British and Portuguese forces, recovered possession of Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajos, in 1812; and he soon after gave marshal Marmont a signal defeat at Salamanca. The effects of this great victory were felt in different parts of Spain: king Joseph, with the central French army, found himself obliged again to leave Madrid; and the French deserted the long continued blockade of Cadiz. The Spanish cortes presented the august spectacle of a public signature of the articles of that constitution which had so long been the object of their labours. Deputies from all parts of the monarchy were present in this solemnity. A commission was appointed to carry the constitution to the regency. The deputies swore to obey the constitution; the regency took the oath of office; and the constitution was solemnly proclaimed. The next important event was the battle of Vittoria, in 1813. The French retired by Pamplona; and being driven from all their strong posts, they at length crossed the Bidassoa, and re-entered France. The allied forces took the strong castle of St. Sebastian, in the operations against which the British navy gave effectual assistance. The progress of the allies in France afterwards, produced the capitulation of most of the French garrisons remaining in Spain; and at length the state of affairs would no longer permit the detention of Ferdinand. The king proceeded to Valencia in 1814, where he was joined by most of the grandees and many prelates. At this place, Ferdinand issued a royal proclamation, in which he declared his intention not only not to swear or accede to the constitution, or to any decree of the

cortes derogating from his prerogatives as sovereign, but to pronounce that constitution and those decrees null and of no effect. The decree for dissolving that body was received with enthusiasm by the people of Madrid. A great number of persons were arrested, whose names comprised almost all those who had rendered themselves conspicuous during the reign of the cortes in favour of public liberty. Ferdinand was received in Madrid with every demonstration of loyalty. The court of inquisition was re-established, though, it is said, in a milder and more equitable form; arrests and prosecutions were multiplied; and Spain was effectually thrown back to that degraded state among nations from which she seemed about to emerge. During the captivity of Ferdinand in France, the inhabitants of Mexico and other parts of South America subject to Spain, were divided into two parties; the loyalists, who submitted to the regency, and the independents, who aimed to govern themselves. The latter have now been every where triumphant. Another revolution has taken place in Spain, and the constitution has again been re-established, by which the royal despotism has been terminated, and the chief power of the state transferred to the Cortes. Spain, deprived of her colonies, must now depend on her own resources.

SUCCESSION OF KINGS FROM FERDINAND THE GREAT.

Ferdinand the Great, under whom Castile and Leon were united, from 1027 to	1035
Sancho the Strong	1065
Alphonso the Valiant	1072
Alphonso VII.	1109
Alphonso VIII.	1122
Sancho III.	1157
Ferdinand II.	1159
Alphonso IX.	1156
Henry I.	1214
Ferdinand III.	1216
Alphonso X.	1252
Sancho IV.	1264
Ferdinand IV.	1295
Alphonso XI.	1312
Peter the Cruel	1350
Henry II.	1368
John I. the Bastard	1379
Henry III.	1390
John II.	1406
Henry IV.	1454

Ferdinand and Isabella, the first styled Catholic	1474
Philip I.	1504
Charles I.	1516
Philip II.	1555
Philip III.	1591
Philip IV.	1621
Charles II.	1665
Philip V. resigned	1700
Lewis	1724
Philip re-assumed, died	1725
Ferdinand VI.	1746
Charles III.	1759
Charles IV.	1788

who resigned the crown to his son Ferdinand VII. 1808

SPANDABASEA, a magus or philosopher of Persia, who governed the kingdom during Cambyzes's expedition into Egypt, and persuaded him to murder his brother Smerdis. He resembled Smerdis so much that Cyrus ordered his ears to be cut off, to distinguish him from his son; he, however, found means to hide that defect, and personated Smerdis; but the fraud was soon detected.

SPARTA. (See *Lacedæmon*.)

SPINOLA. (Ambrose), a famous general, was born in Spain, of a noble Genoese family, in 1569. He commanded an army in Flanders, and in 1604 took Ostend; for which he was made general of all the Spanish troops in the Low Countries, where he was opposed by Maurice, of Nassau. In the war occasioned by the disputed succession to the duchy of Cleves and Juliers, Spinola took Aix-la-Chapelle, Wesel, and Breda. He died in 1630.

STAEL (Anne Louisa Germaine Necker, baroness de), was the daughter of the celebrated M. Necker, and born at Paris, in 1766. In 1793, her husband being appointed ambassador to the new republic, gave Madame de Stael an opportunity of exerting herself in those political intrigues to which she had a great propensity. Bonaparte, however, had no esteem for female politicians, and in 1803 banished her from the capital. Upon this she went to Germany, next to Italy, and twice visited England. She died July 15, 1817.

STALOWICSI, a small town of Russian Lithuania, in the government of Minsk. In 1789 the Poles, under Oginaki, were defeated here with great

loss, by the Russians, under Suwarrow.

STAMFORD-BRIDGE (West), a hamlet in the east riding of Yorkshire, remarkable in history for a bloody battle, in which Harold defeated the Danes, ten days before the invasion of William the Conqueror, from which event the place was anciently called Battle-bridge.

STANHOPE (Charles, the third earl), was born August 3, 1753. In 1774 he stood candidate for Westminster, but without success. By the interest of the earl of Shelburne, however, he was brought into parliament for the borough of Wycombe, which he represented till the death of his father, in 1786, called him to the Upper House. He distinguished himself at an early period of the French Revolution, by an open avowal of republican sentiments, and went so far as to lay aside the external ornaments of the peerage. He was also a frequent speaker, and on some occasions was left single in a minority. He died December 16, 1816.

STANISLAUS AUGUSTUS PONIATOWSKI, was elected to the throne of Poland in 1764, and if ever any sovereign had reason to think his crown heavy, and beset with thorns, Stanislaus Augustus Poniatowski stood in that predicament. In 1771 he experienced a narrow escape from assassination. To this intended murder of Stanislaus, succeeded, in the following year, the partition of his dominions. He survived only a short time the fall of his throne, and the humiliation of his country. He died of an apoplexy, at Petersburg, on the 11th of April, 1798.

STANTZ, a small town of Switzerland. In 1799, an obstinate action was fought here between the Swiss and the French, and the town was taken by the latter.

STATES OF THE CHURCH, or **ECCLESIASTICAL STATE**, an extensive country of Italy, forming the temporal dominions of the pope. The papal territory was invaded in 1796 and 1797; the French were on the eve of entering Rome; and peace was obtained only by the payment of a large contribution, and a great cession of territory. A concordat for France was concluded in 1802, and

HISTORY.

two years after the pope repaired to Paris, to crown the new emperor. Rome was occupied in 1806 by the French troops, and the pope conveyed a prisoner, first to Savona, and afterwards into the interior of France, where he remained until 1814, when he was restored to most of his former prerogatives. Pius VII. was elected to the papal chair in 1800.

STEENKERKE, a small town of the Netherlands, province of Hainault. It is remarkable for an obstinate battle fought here on the 24th of July, 1692, between the allies and the French, in which the latter were victorious.

STENKO RAZIN, chief of the Cossacks, excited a dreadful rebellion against the czar of Russia, in 1669. He commenced his depredations on the river Wolga, and his successes procured him immense riches. He then advanced to the frontiers of Persia, where he captured a Persian princess, whom he afterwards threw into the Wolga.

STEPHEN, king of England, usurped the throne on the death of Henry I. in the year 1135. In order to secure himself, he passed a charter, granting several privileges to the different orders of the state. To the nobility, a permission to hunt in their own forests; to the clergy, a speedy filling of all vacant benefices; and to the people, restoration of the laws of Edward the Confessor. Matilda, however, asserting her claim to the crown, landed upon the coast of Sussex, assisted by Robert, earl of Gloucester. The whole of Matilda's retinue, amounted to no more than one hundred and forty knights, who immediately took possession of Arundel castle; but her forces every day seemed to gain ground. Meantime Stephen flew to besiege Arundel, where she had taken refuge, and where she was protected by the queen dowager, who secretly favoured her pretensions. This fortress was too feeble to promise a long defence, and would have been soon taken, had it not been represented to the king, that as it was a castle belonging to the queen dowager, it would be an infringement on the respect due to her to attempt taking it by force. Stephen, therefore, permitted Matilda to come forth in safety, and had her conveyed

with security to Bristol, another fortress equally strong with that from whence he permitted her to retire. Matilda's forces increased every day; and a victory gained by the queen threw Stephen from the throne, and exalted Matilda in his room. Matilda, however, affected to treat the nobility with a degree of disdain, to which they had long been unaccustomed; so that the fickle nation once more began to pity their deposed king. The bishop of Winchester fomented these discontents; and when he found the people ripe for a tumult, detached a party of his friends and vassals to block up the city of London, where the queen then resided, and measures were taken to instigate the Londoners to a revolt, and to seize her person. Matilda having timely notice of this conspiracy, fled to Winchester, whither the bishop followed her. His party was soon sufficient to bid the queen open defiance; and to besiege her in the very place where she first received his benediction. There she continued for some time, but the town being pressed by famine, she was obliged to escape, while her brother, the earl of Gloucester, endeavouring to follow, was taken prisoner, and exchanged for Stephen, who still continued a captive. Thus a sudden revolution once more took place; Matilda was deposed, while Stephen was again recognised as king. His reign, however, was soon terminated by his death, which happened about a year after the treaty at Canterbury, when Henry, Matilda's son, succeeded.

STIRLING, a county of Scotland.

In the early ages Stirlingshire was the subject of bloody contention between the Picts and Scots. Near Bannockburn was fought the eventful battle between Robert Bruce and Edward II. Contiguous is the Thorwood, famous for being the hiding place of the renowned Wallace. Near Falkirk two famous battles were fought, one wherein Wallace and the Scots were defeated, and the other where the adherents of the Stuart family obtained a victory in 1746. The castle of Stirling has frequently sustained the longest sieges recorded in the Scottish annals.

STIRLING, (Castle of,) is of great antiquity. When Kenneth II. overthrew the Pictish government, he or-

dered it to be razed. It was soon, however, rebuilt; for in the reign of Donald V., Osbriht and Elia, two Northumbrian princes, having invaded the kingdom, rebuilt the castle of Stirling, and placed in it a strong garrison. In the tenth century it again came into the possession of the Scotch. In the twelfth century, it was one of the most important fortresses of the kingdom. It was taken from the English, into whose hands it had fallen, by Robert Bruce after the battle of Bannockburn. It was the birth-place of James II.; and in it he perpetrated that atrocious deed which stains his character and reign, the murder of his kinsman, William, earl of Douglas, whom he stabbed with his own hand; and the room where the deed was committed still goes by the name of Douglas's room. A strong battery was erected about the year 1559, during the regency of Mary of Lorraine, called the French battery. In the reign of queen Anne, the castle was enlarged and repaired, and a flanking battery was erected on the south side. Since that period no alteration or repairs of any consequence have been made.

STOCKACH, a small town of Germany, in Baden. The French under Jourdan, were defeated here by the Austrians under the archduke Charles, on the 25th of March, 1799.

STOCKHOLM, dreadful massacre at, the author of which was the inhuman and tyrannical Christian II. He determined to destroy at once all the Swedish nobility, in order to revenge the troubles they had occasioned, and to prevent the people from revolting in future, by depriving them of proper persons to conduct their operations. He cut off the chief men of the nation with the axe of the executioner. The entire senate were conducted to death before the eyes of the citizens of Stockholm, who beheld the bloody scene with apathy and unconcern. The peasantry viewed this massacre in no other light than as a just retribution for the oppressive conduct of the nobles, who had converted the monarchy into a kind of aristocracy. The cruelty of Christian is almost inconceivable; he indiscriminately pillaged all ranks of people, erected every where scaffolds and gibbets, and brandished the scythe of death over

every head. He did not consider it as a sufficient gratification to deprive his victims of life; he took a pleasure in prolonging the duration of their sufferings by the sight of the preparations which preceded the execution, and he wished to give them as it were a full relish of all the bitterness of death. Among other instances of cruelty and barbarity, he obliged women to sew with their own hands the sacks in which they were to be tied up and drowned.

STORMS.—In London, which threw down 1,500 houses in 944; near 400 houses in 1055; and in Oct. 17, 1691, near 500 houses, and also unroofed Bow church. At Old Sarum, the steeple with a number of houses were thrown down on the same day. The greater part of Denmark and Norway desolated by a storm in 1494. In 1516, a storm of hail destroyed all the fish, birds, and beasts of Italy; also in 1515, a violent one in Denmark which rooted up whole forests. The day Oliver Cromwell died, Sept. 3, 1658, a storm that extended all over Europe; a great one Feb. 18, 1662; 200 sail of colliers lost in 1696; the most terrible storm ever known in England. Nov. 27, 1703, which unroofed many houses and churches, blew down several chimneys and the spires of many steeples, tore up whole groves of trees, and the leads of some churches were rolled up like scrolls of parchment, and vessels, boats, and barges were sunk in the Thames; one 2d rate, four 3d rates, four 4th rates, and many others of less force, were cast away upon the coast of England, and above 1,500 seamen lost: in London only the damage was estimated at a million; Port Royal, in Jamaica, destroyed, Aug. 28, 1722; again, Oct. 20, 1744; at the mouth of the Ganges, when 20,000 vessels of different kinds were cast away, eight English East India ships, and 300,000 people lost; in the West Indies, the severest ever known, Sept. 6, 1776; in all the West India Islands, particularly at Savannah La Mar, in Jamaica, and at Barbadoes, in Oct. 1780; all over England, Jan. 1, 1779; in the West Indies, where great damage was done, particularly in the French islands, July, 1787; at Liverpool, June 29, 1789; almost all over the kingdom, Dec. 26, 1790; almost universal through

HISTORY.

Great Britain, by which much damage was done, Jan. 17, 1794; a terrific thunder storm in Somersetshire, when the hailstones measured from six to seven inches in circumference, July 15, 1806; a violent tempest at Cadiz, which caused great destruction among the shipping, March 6-8, 1810.

STRAFFORD, Earl of, (Thomas Wentworth,) was the eldest son of sir William Wentworth, of Yorkshire, and born in Chancery-lane, London, April 13, 1593. In 1614, he succeeded to the baronetcy, and the following year was nominated keeper of the archives for the West Riding, in the room of sir John Saville. He was made president of the council of York, and next lord deputy of Ireland. In 1639 he was created earl of Stafford, made knight of the garter, and appointed lord-lieutenant. All this increased the number and malignity of his enemies in the house of commons; who, when the earl returned to take his seat in the house of lords, carried up an impeachment against him, and he was sent to the Tower. But though the prosecutors took four months to prepare their case, and pursued it with virulence, no evidence could be found to support the charges. Determined, however, not to let their victim escape, Pym and his associates brought in a bill of attainder, which, by exciting the mob to acts of outrage, they forced the peers to pass. The king likewise yielded to his fears, against his conscience, and gave the royal assent to this illegal measure. He suffered on Tower-hill, May 12, 1641.

SUBLITZ, a village of Prussian Saxony, two miles W. of Torgau, near which was fought, on the 3d of November, 1760, an obstinate and sanguinary battle between the Prussians and Austrians, commonly called the battle of Torgau. It ended to the advantage of the Prussians.

SUETONIUS, (C. Paulinus) the first Roman general who crossed mount Atlas with an army, of which expedition he wrote an account. He presided over Britain as governor for about 20 years, and was afterwards made consul. He forsook the interest of Otho, and attached himself to Vitellius.

SUEVI, In the time of Cæsar, the Suevi were numbered among the

most warlike nations of Germany, and agreed in customs and manners with the other inhabitants of that extensive country. Their situation is said to have been between the Elbe and the Vistula. Tiberius transported some thousands of them into Gaul, and assigned lands to others beyond the Danube. They formed a kingdom in the vicinity of the towns of Merida, Seville, and Carthage, which, in the year 585, was reduced to a province of the Gothic monarchy, by Leovigild, king of the Visigoths, after it had subsisted one hundred and seventy-four years.

SULI, **SOULI**, or **SULLI**, a district of European Turkey, in Albania. The Suliotes in their wars, particularly between 1786 and 1803, were remarkable for the courage and pertinacity which they displayed.

SULLY, (Maximilian de Bethune, baron de Rosni, and duke of), was born at the castle of Rosni in 1559. At the age of eleven, the baron, his father, presented him to the queen of Navarre, who gave him an appointment about the person of her son Henry, with whom Sully was educated. Soon after this the queen, on the invitation of Charles IX. went to Paris, and died there, not without suspicion of poison; which opinion received confirmation when the massacre of St. Bartholomew occurred soon afterwards. In that carnage, Sully escaped by passing through the crowd as a student, to the college of Burgundy, where the principal locked him up in a closet for three days. In 1576, the king of Navarre eluded the vigilance of his guards, and arrived at Tours, accompanied by Sully, who, in the war that ensued, carried his valour almost to excess, which made Henry say to him one day, "I admire your courage, but wish you to reserve it for better occasions." In all the battles and sieges that followed, he bore a prominent part. Henry IV. made him governor of Poitou, grand master of the ports and harbours of France, and erected, in his favour, the lands of Sully upon the Loire, into a duchy. On the murder of that great monarch, in 1610, the duke retired from court, and employed himself in writing his memoirs. He died at his castle at Villabon, Dec. 21, 1641.

SURSUTTY, a river of Hindostan.

It is celebrated for being the scene of battle between sultan Mohammed Ghory and the allied Hindoo chiefs, in the year 1191, when the latter obtained a signal victory over their invaders.

SUSA, now Suster, a celebrated city of Asia, the chief town of Susiana, and the capital of the Persian empire, built by Titbonus, the father of Memnon. Cyrus took it. The walls of Susa were above one hundred and twenty stadia in circumference.

SUWORROW, or SUWOROFF, (Count Alexander) a Russian general, was born of a Swedish family, about 1730. He made his first campaign in the seven years' war, and distinguished himself so much, that in 1762 he was appointed colonel of infantry. In 1768 he was made brigadier; soon after which he was raised to the rank of major-general, and for his services in Poland, received the orders of St. Anne, St. George, and Alexander. In 1778 he had a command against the Turks, whom he defeated at Turtukay; on which occasion he wrote to marshal Romanzow, as follows:—"Honour and glory to God! Glory to you, Romanzow! We are in possession of Turtukay, and I am in it." On the renewal of the war in 1787, Suworow defended Kimburn, and was wounded at the siege of Oczakow. September 22, 1789, he gained, in conjunction with the Austrian general, Saxe Coburg, the victory of Rymnik, though the Turks mustered four to one against the allies. This achievement was followed by the taking of Bender and Belgrade, for his share in which, Suworow was created, by the emperor Joseph, a count of the Roman empire, and by his own sovereign, a count of the empire of Russia, with the title of Rymnikaki. In 1790 he took Ismailow, where, though the plunder was immense, Suworow would not take a single article for himself. On this conquest he wrote to prince Potemkin the following letter: "The Russian colours wave on the ramparts of Ismailow." After this, Suworow had a principal concern in the operations which produced the partition of Poland, for which he was made a field-marshal, and presented with an estate. When the emperor Paul embarked in the confederacy against France, Suworow

was appointed commander of the combined army in Italy, where he gained many advantages, particularly the battle of Novi. After this he crossed the Alps, and marched into Switzerland, but being disappointed of reinforcements, he was obliged to retreat towards the lake of Constance. He was then recalled, and died of chagrin, May 18, 1800.

SWEDEN. The Goths, the ancient inhabitants of this country, joined by the Normans, Danes, Saxons, Vandals, &c subdued the Roman empire, and all the southern nations of Europe. The introduction of Christianity, however, by Ansgarius, bishop of Bremen, in 829, seems to present the first certain period of the Swedish history. The history of Sweden, and indeed of all the northern nations, even during the first ages of Christianity, is confused and uninteresting, and often doubtful, but sufficiently replete with murders, massacres, and ravages. That of Sweden is void of consistency, till about the middle of the fourteenth century, when it assumes an appearance more regular and consistent. The Swedes perished in the dissensions between their prelates and laybarons, or between those and their sovereigns; they were drained of the little riches they possessed, to support the indolent pomp of a few magnificent bishops; and, what was still more fatal, the unlucky situation of their internal affairs exposed them to the inroads and oppression of a foreign enemy. These were the Danes, who, by their neighbourhood and power, were always able to avail themselves of the dissensions in Sweden. In this deplorable situation Sweden remained for more than two centuries; sometimes under the nominal subjection of its own princes, sometimes united to the kingdom of Denmark. Denmark negotiated a treaty of peace with Sweden and Great Britain, in 1814. By this treaty Norway was surrendered to Sweden, in return for which Denmark received Swedish Pomerania, and the isle of Rugen.

SUCCESSION OF KINGS FROM
SIGISMUND I.

Sigismund I.	A. D.	1592
Charles IX.	—	1606
Gustavus II. (Adolphus)	—	1611
Christina, (aged 6)	—	1633
Charles X.	—	1654

HISTORY.

Charles XI.	A. D.	1600
Charles XII. (aged 15)	—	1699
Ulrique, sister to Charles, (aged 15)	—	1719
Adolphus of Holstein	—	1751
Gustavus III.	—	1771
Gustavus IV.	—	1792
Charles XIII.	—	1809
Marshal Bernadotte, then chosen crown prince, is now king.		

SWITZERLAND. The exaggerated accounts given of the riches and milder climate of Italy, occasioned the successive inroads of the Cænomani, the Læves, and Ananes, and the various troops of barbarians who gloried in the name of Gauls. In all these expeditions, the Helvetians took a considerable share, and afterwards joined the Cimbri and the Teutones against the Romans. However, their want of discipline finally proved fatal to them; and the arms of Marius and Sylla obtained over the combined forces of Germany the most complete and decisive victory. From this era, the Helvetians lived in friendship and alliance with the Romans, till the arts of Orgetorix, one of their chieftains, involved them in that unfortunate expedition, which ended in their being deprived of liberty and independence, by Julius Cæsar, in 57 B. C. Helvetia thus became a province of Rome. The decline of the Roman power, and the irruption of the Goths, Vandals, Huns, and other northern tribes, hastened the downfall of the unhappy Helvetians. Of those who settled in Helvetia, the chief were the Burgundians and the Alemanni, a German nation, who made their first appearance in A.D. 414, and settled in the duchy of Wurtemberg. On the downfall of the western nation, the Alemanni overran that part of Gaul which is now known by the name of Alsace; and being joined by their countrymen in Germany, they entered the territories of the Rhiparian Franks, and put all to fire and sword. This unprovoked attack, summoning Clovis king of the Salian Franks to the defence of his allies, the Alemanni were entirely defeated in a general engagement, with the loss of their king; and this nation acknowledged the sovereignty of Clovis, in 496, who gradually subdued, and afterwards civilized the greatest part of Helvetia. Under the Franks it remained till 888, when, upon the death

of Charles the Great, it was seized by Raoul, and became part of the kingdom of Burgundy, which was given by Rodolf, the last king of Burgundy, to Conrad II. emperor of Germany, in 1032; from which time it was esteemed a part of the empire; but being unjustly treated by Albert, duke of Austria, the inhabitants revolted in 1308. In 1315, the several states of which this country was composed made their league perpetual; and in 1649, their liberty was absolutely fixed by treaty. The peace of Arau, in 1712, terminated the intestine struggles of the Swiss, which long rent in sunder the bonds of their union. Under the protection of the Helvetic league, the whole territory of Switzerland became, and for ages continued, an industrious, a free, a blameless, and a happy nation, until they were attacked by their neighbours the French. In 1798, the directory of France, having become daring by the peace which they had dictated to the emperor, suddenly declared war against Switzerland. At length, the French, partly by force, and partly by treachery, succeeded in their attempt, and the directory, after changing the government from a federal into an united republic, continued to levy contributions, and impose exactions, with the most unpardonable severity. Thus, after enjoying the sweets of independence since the commencement of the fourteenth century, the republics of Switzerland were overthrown by a foreign enemy, and obliged to change the form of their government. The treaties of Lunéville and of Amiens, held out to the Helvetic confederacy a guarantee of her ancient freedom and independence, which were never fully realized. By the treaty of Vienna, in 1815, the integrity of the nineteen cantons, as they existed in a political body, was recognized as the basis of the Helvetic system. To Switzerland were united the Valais, the territory of Geneva, and the principality of Neuchâtel, which form three new cantons; and to the Helvetic confederation were added the bishopric of Basle, and the city and territory of Bienne, which form part of the canton of Berne.

SYLLA. (L. Cornelius) a celebrated Roman, of a noble family. He first entered the army under the great Marius, whom he accompanied in Ne-

midia, in the capacity of quaestor. He rendered himself conspicuous in military affairs, and Boecchus, one of the princes of Numidia, delivered Jugurtha into his hands for the Roman consul. The rising fame of Sylla gave umbrage to Marius, who was always jealous of an equal, as well as of a superior; but the ill language which he might use, rather inflamed than extinguished the ambition of Sylla. He left the conqueror of Jugurtha, and carried arms under Catullus. Sometime after he obtained the praetorship, and was appointed by the Roman senate to place Ariobarzanes on the throne of Cappadocia, against the views and interest of Mithridates, king of Pontus. This he easily effected, one battle left him victorious; and before he quitted the plains of Asia, the Roman praetor had the satisfaction to receive in his camp the ambassadors of the king of Parthia, who wished to make a treaty of alliance with the Romans. At his return to Rome, he was commissioned to finish the war with the Marri, and when this was successfully ended, he was rewarded with the consulship, in the fiftieth year of his age. In this capacity he wished to have the administration of the Mithridatic war; but he found an obstinate adversary in Marius, and he attained the summit of his wishes only when he had entered Rome sword in hand. After he had slaughtered all his enemies, set a price upon the head of Marius, and put to death the tribune Sulpitius, who had continually opposed his views, he marched towards Asia, and disregarded the flames of discord which he left behind him unextinguished. Mithridates was already master of the greatest part of Greece, and Sylla, when he reached the coast of Peloponnesus, was delayed by the siege of Athens, and of the Pyraeus. His boldness succeeded, the Pyraeus surrendered, and the conqueror spared the city of Athens. Two celebrated battles, at Cheronea and Orchomenos, rendered him master of Greece. He crossed the Hellespont, and attacked Mithridates in the very heart of his kingdom. The artful monarch, who well knew the valour and perseverance of his adversary, made proposals of peace; and Sylla did not

hesitate to put an end to a war which had rendered him master of so much territory, and which enabled him to return to Rome like a conqueror. Murena was left at the head of the Roman forces in Asia, and Sylla hastened to Italy. In the plains of Campania he was met by a few of his adherents, and he was soon informed, that if he wished to contend with Marius, he must encounter fifteen generals, followed by twenty-five well disciplined legions. Pompey embraced his cause, and marched to his camp with three legions. Soon after he appeared in the field to advantage; the confidence of Marius decayed with his power, and Sylla entered Rome like a tyrant and a conqueror. The streets were daily filled with dead bodies, and seven thousand citizens, to whom the conqueror had promised pardon, were suddenly massacred in the circus. The slaughter was continued, and no less than four thousand seven hundred of the most powerful and opulent were slain. Sylla at last died, in the greatest torments, of the tousy disease, about seventy-eight years, B. C., in the sixtieth year of his age.

SYPHAX, a king of the Massylii in Libya, who married Sophonisba, the daughter of Asdrubal, and forsook the alliance of the Romans to join himself to the interest of his father-in-law, and of Carthage. He was conquered in a battle by Masinissa, the ally of Rome, and given to Scipio the Roman general. The conqueror carried him to Rome, where he adorned his triumph. Syphax died in prison, two hundred and one years B. C., and his possessions were given to Masinissa.

SYRACUSE, a celebrated city of Sicily, founded about seven hundred and thirty-two years before the Christian era, by Archias, a Corinthian, and one of the Heraclidæ. It was under different governments; and after being freed from the tyranny of Thrasibulus, B. C. 446, it enjoyed security for sixty-one years, till the usurpation of the Dionysii, who were expelled by Timoleon, B. C. 343. In the age of the elder Dionysius, an army of one hundred thousand foot and ten thousand horse, and four hundred ships, were kept in constant pay. It fell into the hands of the

HISTORY.

Romans, under the consul Marcellus, after a siege of three years, B. C. 212.

SYRIA, a large country of Asia, was subjected to the monarchs of Persia, but after the death of Alexander the Great, Seleucus, surnamed Nicator, raised it into an empire, known in history by the name of the kingdom of Syria, or Babyion, B. C. 312. Seleucus died after a reign of thirty-two years, and his successors, surnamed the Seleucidae, ascended the throne in the following order:—Antiochus, surnamed Soter, 280, B. C.; Antiochus Theos, 261; Seleucus Callinicus, 246; Seleucus Ceraunus, 226; Antiochus the Great, 223; Seleucus Philopator, 187; Antiochus Epiphanes, 175; Antiochus Eupator, 164; Demetrius Soter, 163;

Alexander Balas, 150; Demetrius Nicator, 146; Antiochus the Sixth, 144; Diodotus Tryphon, 147; Antiochus Sidetes, 139; Demetrius Nicator restored, 130; Alexander Zebina, 127, who was dethroned by Antiochus Grypus, 123; Antiochus Cysiceus, 112, who takes part of Syria, which he calls Coëlesyria; Philip and Demetrius Eucerus, 93; and in Coëlesyria, Antiochus Pius; Aretas was king of Coëlesyria, 85; Tigranes, king of Armenia, 83; and Antiochus Asiaticus, 69, who was dethroned by Pompey, B. C. 65; in consequence of which Syria became a Roman province. In August, 1822, Syria was greatly damaged by an extensive earthquake, when several cities were overthrown, and above 20,000 persons were killed in a few seconds.

T.

TALavera, battle of, fought on 27th and 28th July, 1809, between a French army, amounting to 47,000 men, and an allied force, in which there were 19,000 British, and 38,000 Spaniards. In the afternoon of the 27th, the French opened a cannonade on the left of the British position, while their cavalry attacked the Spanish infantry, and attempted to win the town of Talavera; they were finally repulsed. At nine in the evening the action ceased, but Victor, the French general, ordered a night attack to be made on the height occupied by general Hill, which he considered the key of the English position. Of this height the enemy gained a momentary possession, but the gallant general recovered it at the point of the bayonet. At day-break, the 28th, the French again attacked general Hill's position, and were repulsed; failing also in their other attempts, they rested about eleven, and, it is said, cooked their dinners on the field. Some refreshments were then served out to the British troops. At noon Victor ordered a general attack along the whole line, and directed his own three divisions against general Hill's position. They were driven back, and their retrograde movement exposed Sebastiani's right, which suffered severely. Their general at length rallied them, and some columns under

Vilatte advanced to their support. General Anson's brigade, consisting of the 1st German light dragoons, and the 23d dragoons, with general Fane's brigade of heavy cavalry, were ordered to charge them. In this charge the British suffered dreadfully, and the 23d were almost annihilated; they, however, deterred the enemy from any farther attempts against the hill. The attack upon the centre, which commenced at the same time, was gallantly resisted by general Campbell, supported by the Spaniards, who turned the flank of the assailants, while the English took their cannon. General Sherbrooke repelled the force opposed to him by a charge of bayonets from the whole division; but the brigade of guards, advancing too far, exposed themselves to the fire of the hostile batteries and retiring columns. At this moment, when the fate of the battle appeared worse than doubtful, sir Arthur Wellesley secured the victory, by moving from the heights a battalion of the 48th, which, with the assistance of Cotton's brigade of cavalry, enabled the guards to retreat under cover. At the close of the day, the enemy were repulsed at all points, and effectually defeated.

TALBOT, (lord,) born at Blechmore, in Shropshire, in 1373. In the first year of Henry V., he was appointed lieutenant of Ireland, where he sup-

pressed a rebellion, and brought the chief, Donald McGuire, to England. He next served in France, to the conquest of which he greatly contributed. In the next reign he laid siege to Orleans, where his name struck terror into the French soldiers, till the appearance of Joan of Arc, as a supernatural being, turned the scale, and the English army retreated. The battle of Patay completed the disaster, and lord Talbot fell wounded into the hands of the enemy. At the end of three years and a half, he was exchanged; and again led the English to victory. He took a number of strong places, and carried his arms to the walls of Paris, for which he was created earl of Shrewsbury. In 1443 he concluded a treaty with the French king; and the following year went again to Ireland as lord lieutenant; but in 1450 he was recalled to serve in France, where he fell at the battle of Chastillon, in his eightieth year, July, 1453.

TALLARD (Camille d'Hostun, count and duke de), marshal of France, was born in 1652, in Dauphiny. He served under Louis XIV. in Holland, in 1672. In 1693, he was made lieutenant-general, and in 1697, was sent ambassador to England. The war being renewed, he assumed the command on the Rhine in 1702, and the year following made himself master of Landau, after defeating the prince of Hesse; but in 1704 he lost the battle of Höchstet, and was taken prisoner by Marlborough, to whom he said, "Your grace has beaten the finest troops in Europe." The duke replied, "You will except, I nope, those who defeated them." Marshal Tallard remained in England till 1712, when he returned to Paris, and was created a duke. In 1726, he was made secretary of state. He died in 1728.

TALNERE, a celebrated town and fortress of Hindostan, province of Khandelsh. At the conclusion of the late war with Holcar, it was stipulated that this fortress should be ceded to the British; but when the troops were sent to take possession, the governor refused to deliver it up; in consequence of which, a large force, under the command of sir Thomas Hislop, invested the fortress, in February, 1819. Soon after the batteries had opened, the governor sent

to solicit terms, but was told he must yield unconditionally; a punishment for having disobeyed the orders of his chief, and refusing to acknowledge the British authority. No further submission having been offered, some guns were brought to the outer gate, and blew it open, after which a corps of Europeans entered; the second gate was found open, and when the troops arrived at the third gate, the governor came out, and delivered himself up to the adjutant-general Conway. The troops continued to advance, and having passed the third and fourth gates without opposition, reached the gate of the citadel. Here they were opposed by the garrison, consisting of Arabs, who refused to yield, unless paid the arrears due to them. After some discussion, the wicket of the gate was opened, and lieutenant-colonel Macgregor, majors Macgregor and Gordon, with several other officers, and twelve grenadiers, were permitted to enter, but were immediately after attacked by the Arabs, who killed the two majors, and wounded colonel Macgregor, with several other officers. During this time one of the other gates was blown open by the troops under colonel Conway, and the storming party having entered, put the whole garrison, consisting of three hundred men, to the sword; shortly after which the governor, a Hindoo, was hung on one of the bastions as a punishment for his rebellion, and for having been the cause of the loss of so many brave officers and men.

TAMERLANE, TIMOUR, TIMUR BEC, or TIMUR THE LAME, was, according to some authorities, the son of a shepherd, and to others, of royal descent. He was born in 1335, at Kesch, in the ancient Sogdiana. His first conquest was that of Balch, the capital of Khorasan, on the frontiers of Persia. He next made himself master of Kandahor, and after reducing all ancient Persia under his dominion, he turned back in order to subdue the people of Transoxana. Thence he marched to lay siege to Bagdad, which he took, and proceeding with his victorious army into India, he subdued the whole of that nation, and entered Delhi, the capital of the empire. After Tamerlane had completed the con-

quest of India, he marched his army back, and falling upon Syria, he took Damascus. From thence he suddenly returned to Bagdad, in 1401, which had partly shaken off the yoke. He soon became master of it again, and gave it up to the fury of the soldiers, on which occasion eight hundred thousand inhabitants are said to have been destroyed, and the city was raised to the ground. About this time, five Mahometan princes, who had been dispossessed by Bajazet of their dominions, situated on the borders of the Euxine sea, implored Tamerlane's assistance; and at length he was prevailed on to march his army into Asia Minor. He began with sending ambassadors to Bajazet, who were ordered to insist on his raising the siege of Constantinople, and doing justice to the five Mahometan princes, whom he had stripped of their dominions. Bajazet disdainful of these proposals, Tamerlane declared war against him, and put his troops in motion. Bajazet raised the siege of Constantinople, and July 28, 1402, the ever memorable battle took place, between Cæsarea and Angora. After an obstinate contest Bajazet was defeated and taken prisoner. Tamerlane, who had hitherto fought with the scymitar and with arrows, employed several field-pieces in this engagement, and the Turks employed cannon and the ancient Greek fire. Tamerlane's splendid victory did not, however, deprive the Turkish empire of a single city. Musa, the son of Bajazet, became sultan, but notwithstanding the protection of Tamerlane, he was unable to oppose his brothers; and a civil war raged thirteen years among the family. Soon after this, Tamerlane ravaged Syria, and from thence he repassed the Euphrates, and returned to Sarcamand. He conquered nearly as great an extent of territory as Jenghis Khan. He was scarcely settled in his newly acquired empire, India, when he began to plan the conquest of China, but he died in the midst of his glorious career, April 1, 1405.

TANAQUIL, the wife of Tarquin, the fifth king of Rome. She was a native of Tarquinia, where she married Lucumon, better known by the name of Tarquin, which he assumed after he had come to Rome. Her

husband was raised to the throne, and she shared with him the honours of royalty. After the murder of Tarquin, Tanaquil raised her son-in-law Servius Tullius to the throne, and ensured him the succession. She distinguished herself by her liberality; and the Romans in succeeding ages had such a veneration for her character, that the embroidery she had made, her girdle, as also the robe of her son-in-law, which she had worked with her own hands, were preserved with the greatest sanctity.

TANCHIA, a small town of Germany. It was the scene of sharp fighting at the battle of Leipsic, on the 18th Oct. 1813.

TANGUT. In 630, Ki-tson, king of Tufan, or Sifan, possessed a vast empire in this part of Asia, including the whole region between China and Hindostan; but it began to decay about 842, the emperor Itay leaving no issue. In 1015 it was divided into several states, which were all conquered by Jenghis Khan in 1227. At what time this country became independent of the Tartars is not known; but in 1716 Tibet, the remains of it, was conquered by the Chinese.

TARBES, a town in the south-west of France. On the 26th of March 1814, the French army, under marshal Soult, were forced from their position here by Lord Wellington.

TARENTUM, **TARENTUS**, or **TARAS**, a town of Calabria. It was founded, or rather repaired, by a Lacedæmonian colony, about 707 years before Christ, under the conduct of Phalanthus. Long independent, it maintained its superiority over thirteen tributary cities; and could once arm 100,000 foot, and 3,000 horse. The war which they supported against the Romans, with the assistance of Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, and which has been called the Tarentine war, is greatly celebrated in history. This war, which had been undertaken B. C. 281, by the Romans to avenge the insults the Tarentines had offered to their ships when near their harbour, was terminated after ten years; 300,000 prisoners were taken, and Tarentum became subject to Rome. The government of Tarentum was democratical; there were, however, some monarchs who reigned there. It was for some time the residence of Pytha-

goras, who inspired the citizens with the love of virtue, and rendered them superior to their neighbours in the cabinet as well as in the field of battle. The large, beautiful, and capacious harbour of Tarentum is greatly commended by ancient historians.

TARIFA, a petty town of the south west of Spain. A British party lodged in it baffled all the efforts of the French besiegers, amounting to eleven thousand men, commanded by marshal Victor. The garrison consisted of 1,200 British under colonel Skerrett, and about 1,000 Spaniards under Copons.

TARGOWICA, or **TERGOWICE**, a small town of Russian Poland. A confederation was formed here in 1791, by some noblemen, to support the new constitution of Poland, so soon subverted by the arms of Russia.

TARQUINIUS PRISCUS, the 5th king of Rome. He distinguished himself so much by his liberality and engaging manners, that Ancus Martius, the reigning monarch, nominated him the guardian of his children. Tarquin reigned with moderation and popularity. He increased the number of the senate, and made himself friends by electing one hundred new senators from the plebeians. The glory of the Roman arms, which was supported with so much dignity by the former monarchs, was not neglected in this reign, and Tarquin showed that he possessed vigour and military prudence in the victories which he obtained over the united forces of the Latins and Sabines, and in the conquest of the twelve nations of Etruria. He laid the foundations of the capitol, and to the industry and the public spirit of this monarch, the Romans were indebted for their aqueducts and subterraneous sewers, which supplied the city with fresh and wholesome water, and removed all the filth and ordure, which, in a great capital, too often breed pestilence and diseases. Tarquin was the first who introduced among the Romans the custom to canvass for offices of trust and honour; he distinguished the monarch, the senators, and other inferior magistrates, with particular robes and ornaments, with ivory chairs at spectacles, and the hatchets carried before the public magistrates, were, by his order, sur-

rounded with bundles of sticks, to strike more terror, and to be viewed with greater reverence. Tarquin was assassinated by the two sons of his predecessor, in the 80th year of his age, thirty-eight of which he had sat on the throne, 578 years before Christ. The second Tarquin, surnamed Superbus, was grandson of Tarquinius Priscus. He ascended the throne of Rome after his father-in-law Servius Tullius, and was the seventh and last king of Rome. He murdered his father-in-law, and seized the kingdom. The crown which he had obtained with violence, he endeavoured to keep by a continuation of tyranny. He paid no regard to the decisions of the senate, or the approbation of the public assemblies, and by wishing to disregard both, he incurred the jealousy of the one, and the odium of the other. He was successful in his military operations, and the neighbouring cities submitted; but while the siege of Ardea was continued, the wantonness of the son of Tarquin at Rome, for ever stopped the progress of his arms; and the Romans, whom a series of barbarity and oppression had hitherto provoked, no sooner saw the virtuous Lucretia stab herself, not to survive the loss of her honour, than the whole city and camp arose with indignation against the monarch. The gates of Rome were shut against him, and Tarquin was for ever banished from his throne, in the year of Rome 244. Tarquin died in the 90th year of his age, about fourteen years after his expulsion from Rome.

TARQUINIUS SEXTIUS, the eldest of the sons of Tarquin the proud, rendered himself known by a variety of adventures. When his father besieged Gabii, young Tarquin publicly declared that he was at variance with the monarch, and the report was the more easily believed when he came before Gabii with his body all mangled and bloody with stripes. This was an agreement between the father and the son, and Tarquin had no sooner declared that this proceeded from the tyranny and oppression of his father, than the people of Gabii entrusted him with the command of their armies, fully convinced that Rome could never have a more inveterate enemy. When he had thus succeeded, he dispatched a private messenger to his father, but

HISTORY.

the monarch gave no answer to be returned to his son. Sextius enquired more particularly about his father, and when he heard from the messenger that when the message was delivered, Tarquin cut off with a stick the tallest poppies in his garden, the son followed the example by putting to death the most noble and powerful citizens of Gabii. The town soon fell into the hands of the Romans. Sextius was at last killed, bravely fighting in a battle during a war which the Latins sustained against Rome in the attempt of re-establishing the Tarquins on their throne.

TARRAGONA, a sea port in the north-east of Spain. An affecting claim to historical notice has been conferred on it by its siege and sack by the French in 1811, so creditable to the talents, and so dishonourable to the humanity of marshal Suchet. An attempt to retake it, made in June, 1813, by an allied force under sir John Murray, was not successful.

TARTARY. Nothing is known concerning the ancient state of this country. Some time before 1200, we find Ung Khan, prince of the tribe of the Koraites, a very powerful sovereign and the greatest part of Tartary tributary to him; but in 1202 he was defeated and put to death by Jenghis Khan, of the tribe of the Mungles in the Mogulestan. This great man was acknowledged sovereign of this country, and of all the rest of Tartary in 1206: after which he extended his conquests into most of the southern parts of Asia. In 1582 the Mungles revolted from the descendants of Jenghis Khan, and became subject to the Manchew Tartars, who now reign in China. At what time the Khalkas became independent is not known, but they were conquered by the Chinese Tartars in 1696. The Eluths became a separate state about 1400, and continue independent to this day.

TAVOY, a town of the Birman empire. Tavoy formerly belonged to the king of Siam, but was taken by the Birmans in 1785. It was besieged the following year by the Siameses, but was so well defended, or rather the besiegers so awkward, that it remained in possession of the conquerors till the year 1790, when bribery caused the gates to be opened, and restored it to the monarch of Siam.

It was retaken by the Birmans in 1792.

TEKELI, (Emeric, Count of,) who went into Transilvania in 1671, and with some others soon distinguished himself at Prince Abaffi's court, where he became, in a little time, first minister of state, and afterwards generalissimo of the troops sent to assist the malcontents, with which he made himself master of several places in Upper and Lower Hungary.

TELESINUS, a general of the Samnites, who joined the interest of Marius, and fought against the generals of Sylla. He marched towards Rome, and defeated Sylla, with great loss. He was afterwards routed, in a bloody battle, and left in the number of the slain, after he had given repeated proofs of valour and courage.

TELL, (William), a Swiss patriot, was an inhabitant of Burgeln in Uri. In 1307, Herman Gesler, the Austrian governor of that province, set his cap on a pole, to which all who passed were required to pay obeisance. This order Tell disobeyed, for which Gesler commanded him, on pain of death, to shoot an arrow at an apple placed upon the head of his own son. Tell, who was an excellent marksmen, cleft the apple without hurting the child; after which he declared, that if he had missed his aim, it was his intention to have directed another arrow through the heart of the tyrant. Gesler then caused Tell to be taken into a boat, for the purpose of conveying him out of the province; but in crossing the lake a storm arose, and as the prisoner was an experienced steersman, he was entrusted with the helm, of which he was no sooner possessed than he steered close to a rock, leapt on shore, and soon afterwards shot Gesler near Kusnacht. He then retired to Stauffacher, and on new year's day following, the Austrian government was overthrown. Tell perished in an inundation in 1354.

TEMPLARS, a grand military order, instituted about 1118, at Jerusalem. Kings, prelates, and great men gave them livings, the end of the institution being to defend the pilgrims from the cruelty of the infidels, and keep the passes free for such as undertook the pilgrimage of the Holy Land. Being accused of criminal acts, the great master of the order was burned

alive, and several others were executed in 1313, the order having been abolished the year before, at the general council of Vienna.

TEMPLE, (Sir William), a celebrated statesman, born in London in 1628. In 1665 he went on a secret mission to Munster; after which he was employed in forming the triple alliance between England, Sweden, and Holland. He next became the resident minister at the Hague, and in that capacity promoted the marriage of the prince of Orange and the princess Mary. In 1679 he was appointed secretary of state; but the next year he resigned that situation, and retired to his country seat in Surrey, where he was often visited by Charles II., James II., and William III. He died in 1700.

TENDAC, a small town in Piedmont. The Piedmontese were defeated near this by the French, in the beginning of May, 1794.

TENNESSEE, one of the united States of America. The first colonists of this country, in the year 1754, were nearly destroyed by the Indians. Their settlements were not renewed till 1774, when the Indians, refusing to join the British standard, were attacked and driven towards the Kenhawa. The country then belonged to North Carolina; and delegates, in 1776, were sent from this district, to the convention held for the purpose of forming a state constitution. In 1789, it was ceded by Carolina to the United States, and in 1796 was received into the federal union, and a constitution formed and ratified by the free inhabitants.

TERRA FIRMA, extending from Darien to Nicaragua, was conquered for the Spaniards by Pedrarias, in 1514, and the rest of this country, extending as far as the river Oronoco, was reduced by private adventurers not long after.

TERRAIL, (Peter) of Bayard, one of the most celebrated generals of his time. He was at the siege of Pampeluna, and defended Mezeres against Charles V., who battered it for six weeks with 100 pieces of cannon. Having followed Admiral Bonniver into Italy, he was mortally wounded in the battle of Rebec.

TERVENGARY, a town of India, where a decisive victory was obtained

by the British troops over those of Tippoo Sultan, in 1790.

TEUTONI and **TEUTONES**, a people of Germany, who, with the Cimbri, made incursions upon Gaul, and cut to pieces two Roman armies. They were at last defeated by the consul Marius, and an infinite number made prisoners.—See *Cimbri*.

TEWKESBURY, a market town of Gloucestershire. It was at this place that the last battle was fought between the adherents of the houses of York and Lancaster. This battle, it is well known, proved fatal to the Lancastrians. The field in which it was fought is still called the Bloody Meadow, and is situated about half a mile from the town. In the civil war in the reign of Charles I. Tewkesbury was the scene of many severe contests between the contending forces.

TEXEL, an island of the Netherlands, near which Admiral Blake defeated the Dutch under Van Tromp, in 1653. In 1673 another battle was fought near this, between the Dutch and the combined fleets of England and France, with doubtful success; a result far different from that of an encounter near the Texel, in the end of August 1799, between the British and Dutch fleets, when the latter, disaffected to the republican government, surrendered after a very slight resistance.

TEST ACT, (the) passed in 1677, in the reign of Charles II., by which dissenters were to be excluded from offices under government.

THABORITES, a fanatical sect in Germany, who flourished in 1437, and became so powerful against the emperor, that he was obliged to conclude a treaty with them. At the expiration of the truce, hostilities were recommenced, and the Thaborites, to the number of 20,000 horse and 30,000 foot, rushed into Misnia, Thuringia, and Franconia, which were abandoned to their fury. At length they were subdued by Sigismund, in 1437, but not without considerable bloodshed.

THAME, a market town in the county of Oxford, was a place of some consequence in the time of the Saxons. In 1010 it suffered severely from the incursions of the Danes, who then overran England. During the civil wars of the 17th century it was un-

HISTORY.

happily surrounded by garrisons of the contending parties, and experienced its full share of the miseries of the period.

THEBES, a celebrated city, the capital of Bœotia, situate on the banks of the river I-menus. The manner of its foundation is not precisely known. Cadmus is supposed to have first begun to found it by building the citadel Cadmea. It was afterwards finished by Amphion and Zethus; but according to Varro, it owed its origin to Ogyges. The government of Thebes was monarchical, and many of the sovereigns are celebrated for their misfortunes, such as Laius, Œdipus, Polyneices, Eteocles, &c. The war which Thebes supported against the Argives, is famous as well as that of the Epigoni. Under Epaminondas, the Thebans, though before dependent, became masters of Greece, and every thing was done according to their will and pleasure. When Alexander invaded Greece, he ordered Thebes to be totally demolished, because it had revolted against him, except the house where the poet Pindar had been born and educated. In this dreadful period 6000 of its inhabitants were slain, and 30,000 sold for slaves. Thebes was afterwards repaired by Cassander, the son of Antipater, but it never rose to its original consequence, and Strabo, in his age, mentions it merely as an inconsiderable village. The monarchical government was abolished there at the death of Xanthus, about 1190 years before Christ, and Thebes became a republic.

THEBES, an ancient celebrated city of Thebais in Egypt, called also Hecatompylos, on account of its hundred gates, and Diospolis, as being sacred to Jupiter. Magnificent statements are given in ancient authors of its extent, grandeur, and population, which its vast ruins, particularly its temples, still, to a considerable degree justify. It was ruined by Cambyzes, king of Persia; but a numerous population still occupies its subterraneous vaults and arches.

THEMISTOCLES, a celebrated general born at Athens. When Xerxes invaded Greece, Themistocles was at the head of the Athenian republic, and in this capacity the fleet was entrusted to his care. While the Lacedæmonians under Leonidas were

opposing the Persians at Thermopylae, the naval operations of Themistocles, and of the combined fleet of the Peloponnesians were directed to destroy the armament of Xerxes, and to ruin his maritime power. This battle, which was fought near the island of Salamis, B.C. 480, was decisive, the Greeks obtained the victory, and Themistocles the honour of having destroyed the formidable navy of Xerxes. Further to ensure the peace of his country, Themistocles informed the Asiatic monarch, that the Greeks had conspired to cut the bridge which he had built across the Hellespont, and to prevent his retreat into Asia. This met with equal success, Xerxes hastened away from Greece, and while he believed on the words of Themistocles, that his return would be disputed, he left his forces without a general, and his fleets an easy conquest to the victorious Greeks. These signal services to his country, endeared Themistocles to the Athenians, and he was universally called the most warlike and most courageous of all the Greeks who fought against the Persians. He was received with the most distinguished honours, and by his prudent administration, Athens was soon fortified with strong walls, her Piræus was rebuilt, and her harbours were filled with a numerous and powerful navy, which rendered her the mistress of Greece. Yet in the midst of that glory, the conqueror of Xerxes incurred the displeasure of his countrymen, which had proved so fatal to many of his illustrious predecessors. He was banished from the city, and after he had sought in vain a safe retreat among the republics of Greece, and the barbarians of Thrace, he threw himself into the arms of a monarch, whose fleets he had defeated, and whose father he had ruined. Artaxerxes, the successor of Xerxes, received the illustrious Athenian with kindness. Themistocles died in the 65th year of his age, about 449 years before the Christian era.

THEODEBERT, king of Metz, succeeded his father Thierry, or Theodoric I., king of Austrasia, in 534. The Goths and Romans being engaged in a war, he considered it as the most favourable opportunity to

deprive them both of Italy, the subject of their war; he accordingly entered it, some say, with an immense army, and forced both camps in one day, so that being master of the field, he ravaged the country, and took several places, but his army declining, he was forced to repass the Alps. Theodebert defeated the Danes, who had made an incursion into his country, and killed their king Chochilaicus, in 516. He died in 548.

THEODEBERT II. king of Austria, succeeded his father Childebert, in 595. He engaged with his brother Thierry in a war against Clotaire II. over whom they had considerable advantages, in 590. After this the brothers declared war against each other. Theodebert was overcome, his troops were put to flight at the battles of Toul and Tolbiac, and he was killed at Cologne, whither he fled in 511, and the 28th of his reign.

THEODEBERT, or THIETBERT, son of Chilperic I., who put himself at the head of his troops, against his brother Sigebert I. king of Austrasia. He was taken in 568, and kept prisoner a whole year; being then set at liberty, he took the field, entered Touraine and Poitou, ravaged the country, and defeated Sigebert's army, commanded by Gondebaud, but was himself killed afterwards at a battle near Angouleme, in 575.

THEODORIC I. of this name, king of the Visigoths, in Spain, succeeded Vallia, in 419. He laid siege to Arles, but was repulsed by Aetius; some time after he defeated Litorius, general of the Roman army, and led him prisoner to Toulouse. But when the formidable forces of Attila, king of the Huns, put all the princes of the Gauls into a great consternation, he united his forces with Merovee, king of France, Aetius, and Gundicaire, king of the Burgundians, and fought and defeated Attila. Theodoric was killed in the battle, in 451.

THEODORIC II. son of the first, murdered his eldest brother Thorismond, in 453, and made himself master of the town of Narbonne, which was surrendered to him by Count Agrippin, in 462. Advancing into Spain, Rechaire, king of the Suevi, his brother-in-law, gave him battle; but being worsted, and taken in his retreat, Theodoric sentenced him to death,

and was himself killed soon after by the contrivance of one of his brothers called Evaric, who ascended the throne in 466.

THEODORE IWANOWITZ, czar of Russia, succeeded John Basilowitz. (See *Russia*.)

THEODOSIUS FLAVIUS, a Roman emperor, surnamed Magnus, from the greatness of his exploits. He was invested with the Imperial purple by Gratian, and appointed over Thrace and the eastern provinces, which had been in the possession of Valentinian. The first years of his reign were marked by different conquests over the barbarians. The Goths were defeated in Thrace, and 4000 of their chariots, with an immense number of prisoners of both sexes, were the reward of the victory. Some conspiracies were formed against the emperor, but Theodosius totally disregarded them; and while he punished his competitors for the imperial purple, he thought himself sufficiently secure in the love and the affection of his subjects. He triumphed over the barbarians, and restored peace in every part of the empire. He died of a dropsy at Milan, in the 60th year of his age, after a reign of 16 years, the 17th of January, A.D. 395. Theodosius was the last of the emperors who was the sole master of the whole Roman empire. His want of clemency, however, in one instance, was too openly betrayed, and when the people of Thessalonica had unmeaningly, perhaps, killed one of his officers, the emperor ordered his soldiers to put all the inhabitants to the sword, and no less than 6000 persons, without distinction of rank, age, or sex, were cruelly butchered in that town in the space of three hours. This violence irritated the ecclesiastics, and Theodosius was compelled by St. Ambrose to do open penance in the church, and publicly to make atonement for an act of barbarity which had excluded him from the bosom of the church, and the communion of the faithful. In his private character Theodosius was an example of soberness and temperance, his palace displayed becoming grandeur, but still with moderation. He never indulged luxury, or countenanced superfluities. He was fond of bodily exercise, and never gave him-

self up to pleasure and enervating enjoyments. The laws and regulations which he introduced in the Roman empire, were of the most salutary nature.

THEODOSIUS the second succeeded his father Arcadius, as emperor of the western Roman empire, though only in the eighth year of his age. The territories of Theodosius were invaded by the Persians, but the emperor soon appeared at the head of a numerous force, and the two hostile armies met on the frontiers of the empire. The consternation was universal on both sides; without even a battle, the Persians fled, and no less than 100,000 were lost in the waters of the Euphrates. Theodosius raised the siege of Nisibis, where his operations failed of success, and he averted the fury of the Huns and Vandals by bribes and promises. He died on the 29th of July, in the 49th year of his age, A.D. 450.

THEOPHILUS, emperor of the east, succeeded his father Michael, in 829. He began his reign by punishing those that assisted his father in the murder of Leo V. and sent his mother-in-law Euphrasie into the same convent whence his father had taken her. Theophilus fought five battles against the Saracens, and was always unfortunate; his grief for the last was so great, that he died A.C. 842, after a reign of twelve years.

THERAMENES, an Athenian philosopher and general in the age of Alcibiades. He was one of the thirty tyrants of Athens, but he had no share in the cruelties and oppression which disgraced their administration. He was accused by Critias, one of his colleagues, because he opposed their views, and he was condemned to drink hemlock, though defended by his own innocence, and the friendly intercession of the philosopher Socrates. He drank the poison with great composure, and poured some of it on the ground, with the sarcastical exclamation of, "This is to the health of Critias." This happened about 404 years before the Christian era.

THISTLEWOOD, (Arthur), a disappointed man and desperate politician, who, in 1819, planned a conspiracy to assassinate the king's minis-

ters, at a cabinet dinner in Grosvenor-square. He, and his confederates, fifteen or sixteen in number, assembled in a stable loft in Cato-street, Mary-la-bonne, on the evening on which they proposed to effect their purpose, but the police having notice, they were surrounded, and most of them captured. Thistlewood and four others were tried at the Old Bailey, and being convicted, were executed in the usual manner in which death is inflicted for high treason.

THERMOPYLÆ, a small pass leading from Thessaly into Locris and Phocis. It has a large ridge of mountains on the west, and the sea on the east, with deep and dangerous marshes, being in the narrowest part only twenty-five feet in breadth. It is celebrated for a battle which was fought there, B.C. 480, on the 7th of August, between Xerxes and the Greeks, under Leonidas. Xerxes assembled his troops and encamped on the plains of Trachis. Xerxes having no particular quarrel with the Spartans, sent messengers to desire them to lay down their arms; to which the Lacedæmonians boldly replied "Let Xerxes come and take them." On the evening of the seventh day after Xerxes had arrived at the straits of Thermopylæ, twenty thousand chosen men, commanded by Hydarnes, and conducted by the traitor Epialtes, who had offered to lead them through another passage in the mountains, left the Persian camp. The next morning they perceived a thousand Phocians, whom Leonidas had sent to defend this important, but generally unknown, pass. The immense shower of darts from the Persians, compelled the Phocians to abandon the passage they had been sent to guard; and they retired to the highest part of the mountain. This gave the Persians an opportunity of seizing the pass through which they marched, with the greatest expedition. In the dead of the night the Spartans, headed by Leonidas, and full of resentment and despair, marched in close battalion to surprise the Persian camp. Dreadful was the fury of the Greeks; and on account of want of discipline, in having no advance guard or watch, greatly destructive to the Persians. Numbers fell by the Grecian spears, but far more perished by the mistakes

of their own troops, who, in the confusion that prevailed, could not distinguish friends from foes. Wearied with slaughter, the Greeks penetrated to the royal tent; but Xerxes with his favourites, had fled to the extremity of the encampments. The dawn of day discovered to the Persians a dreadful scene of carnage, and the handful of Greeks by whom this terrible slaughter had been made. The Spartans now retreated to the straits of Thermopylæ; and the Persians, by menaces, stripes, and blows, could scarcely be compelled to advance against them. The Greeks halted where the pass was widest, to receive the charge of the enemy. The shock was dreadful. After the Greeks had blunted or broken their spears, they attacked with sword in hand, and made an incredible havoc. Four times they dispelled the thickest ranks of the enemy, in order to obtain the sacred remains of their king Leonidas, who had fallen in the engagement. At this crisis, when their unexampled valour was about to carry off the inestimable prize, the hostile battalions under the conduct of Epialtes, were seen descending the hill. All hopes were now dispersed, and nothing remained to be attempted but the last effort of a generous despair. Collecting themselves into a phalanx, the Greeks retired to the narrowest part of the strait; and on a rising ground, took post behind the Phocian wall. As they made this movement, the Thebans, whom fear had hitherto rendered from defection, revolted to the Persians; declaring that their republic had sent earth and water in token of their submission to Xerxes; and that they had been reluctantly compelled to resist the progress of his arms. In the meantime the Lacedæmonians and Thebians were assaulted on every side; the wall was beaten down, and the enemy entered the breaches. But instant death befel the Persians that entered. In this last struggle, the most heroic and determined courage was displayed by every Grecian. It being observed to Dicoenes, the Spartan, that the Persian arrows were so numerous as to intercept the light of the sun, he replied this was a favourable circumstance, because the Greeks thereby fought in the shade. At length it became im-

possible for the Greeks to resist the impetuosity and weight of the darts and other missiles continually poured upon them. They therefore fell, not conquered, not destroyed, but buried under a trophy of Persian arms. In this dreadful conflict, the Persians lost 20,000 men, and according to some historians, the whole of the Persian army amounted to five millions!

THESSALY. The boundaries of Thessaly varied, but it had the Egean sea on the east, and the northern parts of Greece on the south. It contained four provinces, mostly surrounded with mountains. Thessaly, with Epirus and Macedon, comprehended the remainder of Greece, north of the countries already noticed. In the centre of Thessaly, on the river Enipeus, were the city and plain of Pharsalus, famous for the battle fought there between Cæsar and Pompey. The greater part of Pompey's army was cut in pieces, or made prisoners by the conqueror. Thessaly was governed by its own kings till it became subject to Macedon.

THEUX, a small town of the Netherlands. It was the scene of an obstinate action between the French and Austrians in the summer of 1794, in which the latter were defeated.

THOMAS AQUINAS, a friar of the Dominican order, was born in 1224, studied at Cologne and Paris. He new modelled the scholastic divinity, and was therefore called the angelic doctor, and eagle of divines. He died on his journey to the second council of Lyons, in 1274, the 50th year of his age. Pope John XXII. canonized him in 1323, and Pius V. declared him doctor of the church in 1567.

THORN, a celebrated town of West Prussia, taken by a Prussian garrison in 1793. In the end of 1806, it suffered from the invasion of the French, and remained in their hands until the disastrous retreat from Moscow, in 1812.

THRACE, a large country of Europe, at the south of Scythia, bounded by Mount Hæmus. It had the Egean sea on the south, on the west, Macedonia and the river Strymon, and on the east the Euxine sea, the Propontis and the Hellespont. Its northern boundaries extended as far as the later, according to Pliny and others,

HISTORY.

The Thracians were looked upon as a cruel and barbarous nation; they were naturally brave and warlike, addicted to drinking and venereal pleasures, and they sacrificed, without the smallest humanity, their enemies, on the altars of their gods. Their government was originally monarchical, and divided among a number of independent princes. Thrace is barren as to its soil. It received its name from Thrax, the son of Mars, the chief deity of the country. The first inhabitants lived upon plunder, and on the milk and flesh of sheep. It forms now the province of Romania.

THRASYBULUS, a famous general of Athens, who began the expulsion of the thirty tyrants of his country, though he was only assisted by thirty of his friends. His efforts were attended with success, B. C. 401, and the only reward he received for this patriotic action, was a crown made with two twigs of an olive branch; a proof of his own disinterestedness and of the virtues of his countrymen. The Athenians employed a man whose abilities and humanity were so conspicuous, and Thrasybulus was sent with a powerful fleet to recover their lost power in the Ægean, and on the coast of Asia. After he had gained many advantages, this great man was killed in his camp by the inhabitants of Aspendus, whom his soldiers had plundered without his knowledge, B. C. 391.

THRASYMENUS, a lake of Italy near Perusium, celebrated for a battle fought there between Hannibal and the Romans, under Flaminius, B. C. 217. No less than 15,000 Romans were left dead on the field of battle, and 10,000 taken prisoners, or, according to Livy, 6000, or Polybius 15,000. The loss of Hannibal was about 1500 men. About 10,000 Romans made their escape all covered with wounds. This lake is now called the lake of Perugia.

THURLOE, (John,) a statesman, was born at Abbot's Roding, in Essex, in 1616. He became secretary to the parliamentary commissioners at the treaty of Uxbridge; and in 1651 attended the embassy to Holland; on his return from whence he was appointed secretary to the council of state; as he afterwards was to Cromwell. In 1658 he was chosen chan-

cellor of the university of Glasgow. At the restoration he was some time in custody; but soon obtained his release, and died at his chambers in Lincoln's-inn, in 1683.

TIBERIUS, (Claudius Drusus Nero,) a Roman emperor after the death of Augustus, was descended from the family of the Claudii. His first appearance in the Roman armies was under Augustus, in the war against the Cantabri, and afterwards in the capacity of general, he obtained victories in different parts of the empire, and was rewarded with a triumph. He had the command of the Roman armies in Illyricum, Pannonia, and Dalmatia, and seemed to divide the sovereign power with Augustus. At the death of this celebrated emperor, Tiberius, who had been adopted, assumed the reins of government. The beginning of his reign seemed to promise tranquillity to the world; Tiberius was a watchful guardian of the public peace; he was the friend of justice; and never assumed the sounding titles which must disgust a free nation, but he was satisfied to say of himself that he was the master of his slaves, the general of his soldiers, and the father of the citizens of Rome. That seeming moderation, however, which was but the fruit of the deepest policy, soon disappeared, and Tiberius was viewed in his real character. The armies mutinied in Pannonia and Germany, but the tumults were silenced by the prudence of the generals and the fidelity of the officers, and the factious demagogues were abandoned to their condign punishment. This acted as a check upon Tiberius in Rome; he knew from thence, as his successors had experienced, that his power was precarious, and his very existence in perpetual danger. He continued, as he had begun, to pay the greatest deference to the senate; all libels against him he disregarded, and he observed, that, in a free city, the thoughts and the tongue of every man should be free. While Rome exhibited a scene of peace and public tranquillity, the barbarians were severally defeated on the borders of the empire, and Tiberius gained new honours, by the activity and valour of Germanicus and his other faithful lieutenants. He at last retired to the island of Capree on the coast of

Cámpaña; where he buried himself in unlawful pleasures. The care of the empire was entrusted to favourites, among whom Sejanus for a while shone with uncommon splendour. In this solitary retreat the emperor proposed rewards to such as invented new pleasures, or could produce fresh luxuries. While the emperor was lost to himself and the world, the provinces were harassed on every side by the barbarians, and Tiberius found himself insulted by those enemies whom hitherto he had seen fall prostrate at his feet with every mark of submissive adulation. At last grown weak and helpless through infirmities, he thought of his approaching dissolution; and as he well knew that Rome could not exist without a head, he nominated, as his successor, Caius Caligula. Tiberius died at Misenum, the 16th of March, A. D. 37, in the 78th year of his age, after a reign of twenty-two years, six months, and twenty-six days. It has been wittily observed by Seneca, that he never was intoxicated but once all his life, for he continued in a perpetual state of intoxication from the time he gave himself to drinking, till the last moment of his life.

TICHPFIELD, a market town in the county of Southampton. In Tichfield house, Charles I. was concealed, after his escape from Hampton-court, in 1647, and previous to his again resigning himself to the power of colonel Hammond, who conducted him to the isle of Wight.

TICONDEROGA, a fort of the United States. The troops under general Abercrombie were defeated here in 1758; but it was taken during the following year by general Amherst. It was surprised by colonels Allen and Arnold in 1775, and was re-taken by general Burgoyne in 1777.

TIGRANÈS, a king of Armenia, who made himself master of Assyria and Cappadocia. By the advice of his father-in-law, he declared war against the Romans. He despised these distant enemies, and even ordered the head of the messenger to be cut off who first told him that the Roman general was boldly advancing towards his capital. His pride, however, was soon abated, and though he ordered the Roman consul Lucullus to be brought alive into his presence, he

fled with precipitation from his capital, and was soon after defeated near mount Taurus. This totally disheartened him; he refused to receive Mithridates into his palace, and even set a price upon his head. His mean submission to Pompey, the successor of Lucullus in Asia, and a bribe of 60,000 talents, insured him on his throne, and he received a garrison in his capital, and continued at peace with the Romans. His second son, of the same name, revolted against him, and attempted to dethrone him with the assistance of the king of Parthia, whose daughter he had married. This did not succeed, and the son had recourse to the Romans, by whom he was put in possession of Sophene, while the father remained quiet on the throne of Armenia. The son was afterwards sent in chains to Rome, for his insolence to Pompey.

TILLY, (John Tzerokis, count de), a celebrated general, was born near Brussels, and is said to have been originally a Jesuit, which order he quitted for the army. He commanded the Bavarian troops under duke Maximilian, and had a great share in the battle of Prague, Nov. 8, 1620. At that of Lutter, in Lunenburg, in 1626, he defeated the king of Denmark, with whom he afterwards concluded a treaty. In 1631 he took the city of Magdeburg, where he committed a horrible massacre. The same year he was routed by Gustavus Adolphus; and while defending the passage of the Lech against the Swede, he received a mortal wound, April 30, 1632.

TIMAHOE, a small village of Ireland, in Queen's county. In the rebellion of 1641, a sanguinary battle was fought near this village, between the insurgents and the English forces.

TIMOLEON, a celebrated Corinthian, who slew his own brother. When the Syracusans, oppressed with the tyranny of Dionysius the younger, and of the Carthaginians, had solicited the assistance of the Corinthians, all looked upon Timoleon as a proper deliverer; but all applications would have been disregarded, if one of the magistrates had not awakened in him the sense of natural liberty. "Timoleon," says he, "if you accept of the command of this expedition, we will believe that you have

HISTORY.

killed a tyrant; but if not, we cannot but call you your brother's murderer." This had due effect; and Timoleon sailed for Syracuse in ten ships, accompanied by about 1000 men. The Carthaginians attempted to oppose him, but Timoleon eluded their vigilance. Ietas, who had the possession of the city, was defeated, and Dionysius, who despaired of success, gave himself up into the hands of the Corinthian general. This success gained Timoleon adherents in Sicily; many cities which hitherto had looked upon him as an impostor, claimed his protection; and when he was at last master of Syracuse, by the total overthrow of Ietas, and of the Carthaginians, he razed the citadel which had been the seat of tyranny, and erected on the spot a common hall. When Syracuse was thus delivered from tyranny, the conqueror extended his benevolence to the other states of Sicily, and all the petty tyrants were reduced and banished from the island. A code of salutary laws was framed for the Syracusans; and the armies of Carthage, which had attempted again to raise commotions in Sicily, were defeated, and peace was at last re-established. The gratitude of the Sicilians was shewn every where to their deliverer. Timoleon was received with repeated applause in the public assemblies; and though a private man, unconnected with the government, he continued to enjoy his former influence at Syracuse; his advice was consulted on matters of importance, and his authority respected. He ridiculed the accusations of malevolence; and when some informers had charged him with oppression, he rebuked the Syracusans, who were going to put the accusers to immediate death. Timoleon died at Syracuse, about 337 years before the Christian era. His body received an honourable burial, in a public place, called, from him, Timoleon-teum; but the tears of a grateful nation were more convincing proofs of the public regret, than the institution of festivals and games yearly to be observed on the day of his death.

TIPACANOE, a river of the United States, rendered famous for a battle between the Americans and Indians, in November, 1811.

TIPPOO SAIB, the son of Hyder Ali, and equally distinguished for his

vigilance and bravery, in resisting the British during the war in India.—See *India*.

TISSAPHERNES, a satrap of Persia, commander of the forces of Artaxerxes, at the battle of Cunaxa, against Cyrus. It was by his valour and intrepidity that the king's forces gained the victory, and for this he obtained the daughter of Artaxerxes in marriage, and all the provinces of which Cyrus was governor. His popularity did not long continue, and the king ordered him to be put to death when he had been conquered by Agesilaus, 395 B. C.

TICKHILL, a market town in Yorkshire. In 1644, the castle of Tickhill was regarded as a very strong fortress, and garrisoned by the king's troops. After the battle of Marston Moor, and the surrender of York to the parliamentary forces, the earl of Manchester sent colonel Lilburn to reduce this castle, which surrendered after a siege of two days. In 1646, it was dismantled, and rendered untenable, by order of parliament.

TIRCH, a town of Anatolia, in Asia Minor. It is remarkable for the siege by Timur, in 1402, when the inhabitants redeemed their lives by the payment of a sum of money.

TITUS VESPASIAN, son of Vespasian and Flavia Domitilla, became known by his valour in the Roman armies, particularly at the siege of Jerusalem. In the 79th year of the Christian era, he was invested with the imperial purple, and the Roman people had every reason to expect in him the barbarities of a Tiberius, and the debaucheries of a Nero. When raised to the throne, he thought himself bound to be the father of his people, the guardian of virtue, and the patron of liberty; and Titus is, perhaps, the only monarch who, when invested with uncontrollable power, bade adieu to those vices, those luxuries, and indulgences, which, as a private man, he never ceased to gratify. All informers were banished from his presence, and even severely punished. A reform was made in the judicial proceedings, and trials were no longer permitted to be postponed for years. To do good to his subjects was the ambition of Titus; and it was at the recollection that he had done no service, or granted no favour one day,

that he exclaimed in the memorable words of, "My friends, I have lost a day!" Two of the senators conspired against his life, but the emperor disregarded their attempts. He made them his friends by kindness, and, like another Nerva, presented them with a sword to destroy him. During his reign, Rome was three days on fire; the towns of Campania were destroyed by an eruption of Vesuvius; and the empire was visited by a pestilence, which carried off an infinite number of inhabitants. In this time of public calamity, the emperor's benevolence and philanthropy were conspicuous. The Romans, however, had not long to enjoy the favours of this magnificent prince. Titus was taken ill; and as he retired into the country of the Sabines, to his father's house, his indisposition was increased by a burning fever. He died the 13th of September, A. D. 81, in the 41st year of his age, after a reign of two years, two months, and twenty days.

TOGROL BEC, one of the Seljukians, and king of Nishabur, in 1039. He defeated Malek, and exterminated the dominion of the Bugians, in 1056, when that of the Seljukians began.

TOLEDO, an ancient city in the interior of Spain, in New Castile. It was successively the seat of government under the Goths, the Moors, and the kings of Castile. It was in the year 1085 that this ancient capital fell into the hands of the Christians, and became the residence of their kings. It was besieged in 1109, 1114, and 1227, but without success. At a subsequent date it was less fortunate, having been besieged and taken in 1467, and in 1641. Great part of the town was burnt on each occasion, which, with the removal of the government to Madrid, has been the cause of its decline.

TOLENTINO, a town in the central part of Italy. It is remarkable for a treaty of peace concluded here between Bonaparte and the papal court, in February, 1797; also, for some partial actions between the Austrians and Neapolitans, in the beginning of May, 1815.

TONSTAL, bishop of Durham, who opposed the reformation in 1552, for which he was imprisoned, but afterwards restored to his see by queen Mary.

TOOKE, (John Horne) a politician, was the son of a poulterer named Horne, and born in Newport-street, Westminster, in 1736. In 1760 he was inducted to the chapelry of New Brentford; but his conduct ill suited the clerical profession, and he became the partisan of Wilkes; till, on founding the "Society for Supporting the Bill of Rights," a quarrel arose between them, each charging the other with venality and hypocrisy. In 1771 he took his master's degree, and about this time he had a controversy with Junius, in which he was supposed to have the advantage. In 1775 he was imprisoned for a libel on the king's troops in America. In 1790 Horne Tooke offered himself as a candidate for Westminster, but without success. His next appearance before the public was on a charge of high treason, at the Old Bailey, in 1794, when he and his associates were acquitted. In 1796 he again stood for Westminster, and failed; but a few years afterwards he obtained a seat in parliament for Old Sarum, on the nomination of lord Camelford. A motion was brought forward to expel him, on the ground of his being in orders; but this measure was dropped, and a bill brought in to prevent the admission of clergymen in future. He died at Wimbledon, March 19, 1812.

TOORMOOZ, TIRMOZ, or TIRMED, a city of independent Tartary. It is celebrated in history for the siege laid to it by Jenghis Khan, in 1221. After a siege of eleven days, that conqueror took and destroyed it; but it was re-built in the following century.

TORMES, a river of Spain. Its banks were the scene of the battle of Salamanca, fought on the 22d of July, 1812.

TORO, a city in the north-west of Spain. In 1476 a battle was fought here, by which Ferdinand, prince of Arragon, won the kingdom of Castile from Alphonso, king of Portugal.

TOSTI, brother to Harold, who with Helsing, king of Norway, invaded England, and defeated Morcar, earl of Northumberland, and Edwin earl of Mercia. He was, however, defeated by Harold, at the battle of Standford, in 1066, where he was slain.

TOULON, a sea-port in the south-east of France. The most remarkable event in its history is the occupation

of the town and harbour by the British, in the autumn of 1793, the subsequent siege by the republican troops of France, and the precipitate abandonment of the place by the British troops, on the 19th of December, 1793, after burning and carrying off about half the squadron contained in the port. Bonaparte commanded part of the besieging artillery, and directed it with great judgment.

TOULOUSE, a large town in the south of France. In a historical sense it acquired an unfortunate title to notice, by an obstinate battle fought on the 10th of April, 1814, between the British, under lord Wellington, and the French, under Soult; neither commander having been apprised of the abdication of Bonaparte. The British troops were successful, but suffered severely; their loss, in killed and wounded, was between four and five thousand men.

TOURNAY, a large town of the Netherlands. Its citadel, which was one of the finest in Europe, was levelled by the French in the middle of the eighteenth century. In 1792, on the commencement of the war, there took place here an action between the Austrians and French; and in May, 1794, a more serious conflict, between the latter and the allied troops, under the duke of York. This was soon followed by the evacuation of Flanders, and Tournay remained in possession of the French until February, 1814.

TOWTON, a village in the West Riding of Yorkshire. It is famous for a sanguinary battle fought here between the forces of the houses of York and Lancaster, on Palm Sunday, 1461. The Yorkists gained a complete victory, and thirty-six thousand men, of whom nine were noblemen, besides many knights and esquires, fell in the battle and in the pursuit.

TRAFALGAR, (battle of) between the British fleet, under lord Nelson, and the combined fleet of France and Spain, on the 21st of October, 1805. On the 19th, it was communicated to his lordship that this fleet had put to sea, and as he concluded that their destination was the Mediterranean, he immediately made all sail for the entrance of the Straits with the British squadron consisting of twenty-

seven ships, three of them sixty-four. On Monday, the 21st, at day-light, the enemy was discovered off Cape Trafalgar. The commander in chief immediately made the signal for the fleet to bear up in two columns, as they formed in order of sailing; a mode of attack which he had previously directed, to avoid the inconvenience and delay, in forming a line of battle in the usual manner, while he gave out, as the signal, "England expects every man to do his duty." Never was expectation more amply fulfilled, nor orders obeyed with more perfect regularity and effect. The enemy's line consisted of thirty-three ships, of which eighteen were French and fifteen Spanish; the French under admiral Villeneuve, who was also commander-in-chief, and the Spaniards under admiral Gravina. The action began at twelve o'clock, by the leading ships of the columns breaking through the enemy's line; the commander-in-chief about the tenth ship from the van, and admiral Collingwood about the twelfth from the rear, leaving the van of the enemy unoccupied, the succeeding ships breaking through, in all parts, astern of their leaders, and engaging the enemy at the muzzles of their guns. The conflict was severe, and the enemy fought with acknowledged bravery, but the impulse of British skill and courage was irresistible. About three in the afternoon, many of the French and Spanish ships having struck their colours, their line gave way. Admiral Gravina, with ten ships, joining their frigates to leeward, stood towards Cadiz. The five headmost ships in their van tacked, and standing to the southward, to windward of the British line, were engaged, and the sternmost of them taken; the others went off, leaving to his majesty's squadron nineteen ships of the line, of which two were first rates, with Villeneuve, commander-in-chief, and two other flag officers. Such a battle could not have been fought without sustaining great loss of men. The number of killed, however, did not exceed four hundred and twenty-three, nor that of the wounded eleven hundred and sixty-four. The gallant Nelson, however, already immortalised by the battle of Aboukir, fell in the arms of victory, just as he had achieved the

present more extensive and memorable defeat of the enemy. About the middle of the action his lordship received a musket-ball in his left breast, which was aimed at him from the top of the ship with which he was engaged. On his being carried below, he complained of acute pain in the breast, and of privation of sense and motion of the body and inferior extremities: his respiration became short and difficult; his pulse small, weak, and irregular; he frequently declared that his back seemed shot through; that he felt every instant a gush of blood within his breast, and that he had sensations which indicated to him the approach of death. In the course of an hour his pulse became indistinct, his extremities and forehead cold, but he retained his wonted energy of mind, and exercise of his faculties, to the latest moment of his existence: and when victory, as signal as decisive, was announced to him, he expressed his pious acknowledgments and heart-felt satisfaction at the glorious event, in the most emphatic language. He delivered his last orders with his usual precision, and in a few minutes after expired without a struggle.

TRAJAN, (M. Ulpius Crinitus) a Roman emperor, born at Italica, in Spain. After Nerva died, the election of Trajan to the vacant throne was confirmed by the unanimous rejoicings of the people, and the free concurrence of the armies on the confines of Germany and the banks of the Danube. The barbarians continued quiet, and the hostilities which they generally displayed at the election of a new emperor whose military abilities they distrusted, were now few. Trajan, however, could not behold with satisfaction and unconcern the insolence of the Dacians, who claimed from the Roman people a tribute which the cowardice of Domitian had offered. Decebalus, their warlike monarch, soon began hostilities, by violating the treaty. The emperor entered the enemy's country, by throwing a bridge across the rapid stream of the Danube, and a battle was fought, in which the slaughter was so great, that in the Roman camp linen was wanted to dress the wounds of the soldiers. Trajan obtained the victory, and Decebalus, despairing of

success, destroyed himself, and Dacia became a province of Rome. An expedition was now undertaken into the east, and Parthia threatened with immediate war. Trajan passed through the submissive kingdom of Armenia, and by his well directed operations, made himself master of the provinces of Assyria and Mesopotamia. He extended his conquests in the east, he obtained victories over unknown nations; and when on the extremity of India, he lamented that he possessed not the vigour and youth of an Alexander, that he might add unexplored provinces and kingdoms to the Roman empire. Trajan had no sooner signified his intentions of returning to Italy, than the conquered barbarians appeared again in arms, and the Roman empire did not acquire one single acre of territory from the conquests of her sovereign in the east. The return of the emperor towards Rome was hastened by indisposition. He expired in the beginning of August, A.D. 117, after a reign of nineteen years, six months, and fifteen days, in the sixty-fourth year of his age. Under this emperor the Romans enjoyed tranquillity, and for a moment supposed that their prosperity was complete under a good and virtuous sovereign.

TRAPEZOND. Soon after the reduction of Constantinople by the Latins, Alexius Comnenus, surnamed the Great, and his brother David, seized on the provinces of Colchis, Galatia, Paphlagonia, and Cappadocia, with several cities of note, and fixed the imperial residence at Trapezond. John Comnenus, supposed to have been the first who assumed the title of emperor, was confirmed in his dignities by Michael Palæologus, who invited him to Constantinople, and gave him his daughter, Eudocia, in marriage. Trapezond, assaulted by the Greeks, Latins, Turks, Saracens, and Persians, and more immediately by the emperors of Nice, sometimes collectively and sometimes separately, struggled so bravely against their attempts, as to make us regret that there remain only hints of the exploits of this little empire, without any circumstantial detail. Scarcely any thing is remarkable except its last catastrophe. Mohammed II., surnamed the Great, declared war against David

Comnenus; invested his metropolis by sea and land, and led both David and all his family in triumph to Constantinople, whence they were removed to Adrianople, and inhumanly massacred, except the youngest son, who embraced the faith of Mohammed, and one of his sisters, who became the victor's concubine. Such was the melancholy catastrophe of the Trapezontine empire, in the year of Christ 1462, and in the two hundred and fifty-eighth year of its foundation.

TREATIES:—of Winchester, Nov. 1153; of Troyes, May 21, 1420; of Arras, Sept. 22, 1435; of Cambray, 1508; of Noyons, Aug. 16, 1516; of Nuremberg, Aug. 2, 1532; of Nice, 1538; of Cressy, Sept. 18, 1544; of Passau, July 31, 1562; of Utrecht, 1579; of Nonsuch, 1585; between the Turks and Persians, 1599; of twelve years, between the Spaniards and Dutch, April 4, 1609; of Munster, Jan. 20, 1648; of Temeswar, Sept. 7, 1684; the first of partition, Aug. 19, 1698; second of partition, March 3, 1700; of union between England and Scotland, July 22, 1706; of quadruple alliance, May, 1718; the first of Vienna, April 30, and of Hanover, Sept. 3, 1735; of Seville, Oct. 29, 1729; second of Vienna, March 16, 1731; of Peterburgh, of subsidy, Sept. 30, 1755; of London, Jan. 26, 1763; of El Arich, 1800; between Russia and the Porte relative to the Seven Islands, *ib.*; of subsidy, between Great Britain and Austria, *ib.*; of commerce, between France and America, *ib.*; between France and Spain, for the cession of Parma, 1801; between France and Naples, *ib.*; between Portugal and Spain, for settling their boundaries, *ib.*; between Bonaparte and the Pope, for the restoration of religion in France, *ib.*; between France and Bavaria, *ib.*; of San Ildefonso, between France and Spain, *ib.*; between France and Turkey, 1802; between France, Spain, and Portugal, 1803; subsidiary, between Great Britain and Sweden, 1804; between Russia and Great Britain, 1805; between France and Naples, *ib.*; subsidiary, between Great Britain and Sweden, *ib.*; between France and Prussia, at Vienna, *ib.*; between France and Bavaria, 1806; between France and the members of the Germanic body, *ib.*; be-

tween France and Saxony, *ib.*; of amity, between Great Britain and America, *ib.*; between France and Holland, for the cession of Flushing, 1807; pacific, between Great Britain and Turkey, 1809; between Sweden and Russia, *ib.*; between France and Austria, *ib.*; between Sweden and France, 1810; between France and Holland, *ib.*; of commerce, between Great Britain and the prince of Brazil, *ib.*; pacific, between Great Britain, Russia, and Sweden, 1812; at Vienna, between the powers of Europe, 1814; at Paris, between the same, 1815; at Ghent, between Great Britain and the United States, *ib.*

TREMECEN. This country underwent all the revolutions of Algiers, till after the conquest of all this part of Africa by the Saracens; when the inhabitants shook off the yoke, and formed a new government, which grew very considerable for its riches and the splendour of its kings; but it was greatly reduced by the Almoravides, and finally conquered by Yusef, king of Morocco, in 1109. A period being put to the empire of the Almoravides about 1116, it again became independent, but was again reduced by the emperor of Morocco about 1172; but on the decline of the Almohedes, in 1212, Ghamrasen recovered the kingdom out of their hands; and, though it was besieged and taken by Abul Hassan, the fourth king of Fez, the crown continued in the same family about 120 years, without any considerable alteration, except that the kings of Fez became for a time tributary to Abu Feres, king of Tunis, and his son. At length, the last king being slain by Barbarossa, the Turkish pirate, about 1516, this state was united to Algiers.

TRIBUNES OF THE PEOPLE, magistrates at Rome, created in the year U.C. 261, when the people after a quarrel with the senators had retired to Mons Sacer. The two first were C. Licinius, and L. Albinus, but their number was soon after raised to five, and thirty-seven years after to ten, which remained fixed. Their office was annual, and as the first had been created on the 4th of the Ides of December, that day was ever after chosen for the election.

TRINOBANTES, a tribe of an-

lient Beltons, who inhabited the present counties of Middlesex and Essex, and possessed the city of Londinium, or London, which seems to have been founded about the time of Claudius, and is mentioned by Tacitus as a place famous for trade. (See *London*.) The other principal towns of the Trinobantes were Durokitum, Caesaromagus, Conomium, Camalodunum, and Colonia, now Leighton, Burghstead, Canewdown, Malden, and Colchester.

TRIPOLI. This state, though tributary to the Porte, assumes the title of kingdom, and, including the desert of Barca, and the rest of Barbary, is bounded on the east by Egypt, on the north by the Mediterranean sea, on the west by Tunis, and on the south by Nubia. The grand seignior sends to Tripoli a pacha, who is not a mere titular vassal of the Porte, but under real subjection and tributary. After the Vandals, Tripoli was under the dominion of kings, natives of the country, but afterwards fell into the hands of the Arabs, who came from Egypt, and who carried away a great number of slaves, both from the kingdom and the capital. The sceptre was then assumed by pirates or adventurers, from whom it was wrested by the Spaniards. The latter resigned it to the knights of St. John of Jerusalem, who were obliged to yield it to three famous corsairs, Salha Rais, Sinan Dassat, and Dragut, who were assisted with troops furnished by the grand seignior, for this purpose, and who fully established the authority of the Turks. However, the oppressive and intolerant conduct of the Turks, occasioned several revolts, which gave rise to the mixed form of government that still apparently exists; for it is really absolute and despotic. Though the bey is chosen by the militia, and seems to be the chief of a body of republicans, he is entirely arbitrary, and never has recourse to the divan, except on difficult occasions.

TRIUMVIRI, were three magistrates appointed equally to govern the Roman state with absolute power. The first triumvirate, B.C. 60, was in the hands of Julius Cæsar, Pompey, and Crassus, who, at the expiration of their office, kindled a civil war. The second and last triumvirate, B.C. 43, was under Augustus, M. Antony, and Lepidus, and through them the

Romans totally lost their liberty. The triumvirate was in full force at Rome for the space of about twelve years. There were also officers who were called triumviri capitales, created A. U.C. 464. They took cognizance of murders and robberies, and every thing in which slaves were concerned. Criminals under sentence of death were entrusted to their care, and they had them executed according to the commands of the prætors. The triumviri nocturni watched over the safety of Rome in the night time, and in case of fire, were ever ready to take the most effectual measures to extinguish it. The triumviri agrarii, had the care of colonies, that were sent to settle in different parts of the empire. They made a fair division of the lands among the citizens, and exercised over the new colony, all the power which was placed in the hands of the consuls at Rome. The triumviri monetales, were masters of the mint, and had the care of the coin, hence their office was generally intimated by the following letters often seen on ancient coins and medals:—**IIIVIR. A. A. F. F. l. e.** Triumviri auro, argento, ære fando, feriando. The triumviri valetudinis, were chosen when Rome was visited by a plague or some pestiferous distemper, and they took particular care of the temples of health and virtue. The triumviri senatus legendi, were appointed to name those that were most worthy to be made senators from among the plebeians. The triumviri mensarii, were chosen in the second Punic war, to take care of the coin and prices of exchange.

TROMP, (Martin Happertz Van) a Dutch naval commander, was born at the Brill, in Holland, in 1597. He rose from the lowest station to the rank of admiral; and in 1630 defeated a large Spanish fleet. When the war broke out between England and the United States, Van Tromp fought five desperate engagements, in the last of which, July 29, 1653, he was killed by a musket shot. The states-general struck medals to his honour; but his biographers, in celebrating his modesty, have passed over the circumstance of his carrying a broom at the mast-head, to imply that he would sweep the seas of all opponents.

TROPES (Str.) a small sea-port in

HISTORY.

the south-east of France. It is remarkable as the place where Bonaparte embarked for Elba, in the beginning of May, 1814.

TROY, a city, the capital of Troas, or according to others, a country of which Ilium was the capital. Of all the wars which have been carried on among the ancients, that of Troy is the most famous. The Trojan war was undertaken by the Greeks, to recover Helen, whom Paris, the son of Priam, king of Troy, had carried away from the house of Menelaus. The armament of the Greeks amounted to 1000 ships. Agamemnon was chosen general of all the forces; but the princes and kings of Greece were admitted among his counsellors, and by them all the operations of the war were directed. The Grecian army was opposed by a more numerous force. The king of Troy received assistance from the neighbouring princes in Asia Minor, and reckoned among his most active generals, Rhesus, king of Thrace, and Memnon, who entered the field with 20,000 Assyrians and Ethiopians. The army of the Greeks was visited by a plague, and the operations were not less retarded by the quarrel of Agamemnon and Achilles. After the siege had been carried on for ten years, some of the Trojans, among whom were Æneas and Antenor, betrayed the city into the hands of the enemy, and Troy was reduced to ashes. The poets, however, support, that the Greeks made themselves masters of the place by artifice. The greatest part of the inhabitants were put to the sword, and the others carried away by the conquerors. This happened, according to the Arundelian marbles, about 1184 years before the Christian era, in the 3530th year of the Julian period, on the night between the 11th and 12th of June, 408 years before the first olympiad. Some time after, a new city was raised, about 30 stadia from the ruins of the old Troy: but though it bore the ancient name, and received ample donations from Alexander the Great, when he visited it in his Asiatic expedition, yet it continued to be small, and in the age of Strabo it was nearly in ruins.

TROYES, a town in the north-east of France, in Champagne. In the chequered campaign of 1814, this

town was entered by the allies on the 7th of February; re-taken by the French, under Bonaparte, on the 23d of that month; but finally re-occupied by the allies on the 4th of March.

TRURO, a market and borough of Cornwall. Its castle, of which no vestige is now to be seen, was the head-quarters of sir Ralph Hoptoun, soon after his arrival in Cornwall, with the king's forces, in 1642; and near this he was defeated by sir Thomas Fairfax and the parliamentary forces, in 1646.

TUDELA, a town in the north-east of Spain, in Navarre. In 1314, it was the scene of a defeat of the inhabitants of Navarre by the Castilians, and in 1808, of a more serious overthrow of the Spaniards by the French. The former were greatly superior in number, but so badly posted that their opponents had little difficulty in dispersing them, with a loss of 8,000 men in killed, and wounded, and prisoners.

TUDOR, (Owen,) a Welsh gentleman, who married the widow of Henry V. in 1442. The family of Tudor, first raised to distinction by this alliance, afterwards mounted the throne of England, and became extinct on the death of Elizabeth, in 1603.

TULGOM, or **TULGONG**, a town of Hindostan, province of Arungabad. It will be long known in history for having been the scene of the defeat of the Bombay army in 1778, and the subsequent disgraceful convention.

TULLUS HOSTILIUS, the third king of Rome, after the death of Numa. He signalized himself by his expedition against the people of Alba, whom he conquered, and whose city he destroyed after the famous battle of the Horatii and Curiatii. He afterwards carried his arms against the Latins and the neighbouring states with success, and enforced reverence for majesty among his subjects. He died with all his family about 640 years B. C. after a reign of thirty-two years.

TUNIS, which was once a sovereignty of great extent, is at present bounded on the north and east by the Mediterranean sea; on the west by Algiers; and on the south by Tripoli and part of Biledulgerid. It resembles Algiers, in that it exhibits the same religion, the same government, the same manners, and the same

events which transferred it from the hands of the Arabs into those of the Turks; weakened the authority of the latter, and at length brought it to such a state of debility, as to be able to nominate and appoint its own masters under the title of beys, but without entirely rejecting the Turkish influence. Till the commencement of the last century, the grand seignor appointed beys to the government of Tunis; but by the assistance of a militia composed of Moors, Arabs, and, above all, renegadoes, the beys rendered themselves completely absolute and free. The divan is chiefly composed of the friends and creatures of the bey, who is entirely independent of the Porte. The site of the celebrated Carthage can now be distinguished only by a small part of a wall, and the ruins of an aqueduct. There are few provinces which do not attest that this part of Africa was formerly the seat of the arts, and that they are now entirely banished from it.

TURCOING, or **TOURCOING**, a considerable town of French Flanders. This place and neighbourhood were the scene of obstinate fighting in 1794, when on the 17th and 18th of May, the French army, under Pichegru, first obtained an important advantage over the allies. The chief blame of this defeat was laid on the Hanoverians.

TURENNE, (Henry de la Tour, viscount de,) a famous general, was the second son of Henry de la Tour, duke de Bouillon, and born at Sedan in 1611. He first served under his uncles, the princes Maurice and Henry of Nassau; and in 1634 was made major-general. In 1644 he became marshal of France; and though he lost the battle of Mariendal, in 1645, he soon after gained that of Nordlingen, which restored the elector of Treves to his dominions; and the next year he formed a junction with the Swedish army, which compelled the duke of Bavaria to sue for peace. But the same prince soon afterwards broke the treaty, on which Turenne made himself master of his territories. In the civil wars of France, he joined the discontented party; but was shortly after brought over to the king's side. In 1654 he compelled the Spaniards to raise the siege of Arras; and in 1655, he took Conde, and gained

the battle of the Downs, which produced the subjugation of Flanders. In 1667 Turenne renounced the protestant religion; which measure is rather supposed to have proceeded from ambitious than pious motives. On the renewal of the war with Holland, in 1672, he took forty towns in less than a month; drove the elector of Brandenburg to Berlin, and compelled the imperial army to re-cross the Rhine. In the midst of this career of victory, he was killed by a cannon ball, near Acheren, July 27, 1675.

TURGOT, (M.) prime minister of Louis XIV., whose first measure was to re-establish the unrestrained commerce of corn in the interior of France. This measure gave rise to violent tumults, which obliged the king to hold a bed of justice at Versailles.

TURIN, a town of Italy, besieged by the French, in 1706, but delivered, after a splendid victory, by prince Eugene. In 1796 it escaped, by a timely pacification, the attack of the French under Bonaparte. In 1799 it was occupied by a French army, entered in 1799 by the Austro-Russians, but was re-occupied by the French, after the battle of Marengo, in 1800, after which it remained in their possession till the abdication of Bonaparte, in 1814.

TURKESTAN was inhabited by the Turks from the earliest antiquity. In 894 it was overrun by Ismael Al Sammani. How long the conquest was retained is not certain, but we find the Khans of Turkestan making some figure in 1141, when they were conquered by Gurkhan, prince of the Karakitayn Turks, who came from the borders of China. In 1216, Turkestan was conquered by Jenghis Khan, and afterward underwent, for the most part, the revolutions of Karasm.—Turks. See *Ottoman*.

TURNHOUT, an inland town of the Netherlands. In 1596, prince Maurice of Nassau, at the head of a detachment, defeated here a considerable body of the Spaniards; and in October, 1789, a sanguinary action took place here between the Austrian troops and the insurgents of Brabant.

TUSCANY. The great duchy of Tuscany belonged to the emperors of Germany, who governed it by deputies to the year 1240, when the famous distinctions of the Guelphs, who were the partisans of the pope, and the Ghibel-

lines, who were in the emperor's interest, took place. The popes then persuaded the imperial governors in Tuscany, to put themselves under the protection of the church; but the Florentines, in a short time, formed themselves into a free commonwealth, and bravely defended their liberties against both parties by turns. Faction at last shook their freedom; and the family of Medici, long before they were declared either princes or dukes, in fact governed Florence, though the rights and privileges of the people seemed still to exist. The Medici, particularly Cosmo, who was deservedly called the Father of his Country, being in the secret, shared with the Venetians in the immense profits of the East India trade, before the discoveries made by the Portuguese. His revenue, in ready money, which exceeded that of any sovereign prince in Europe, enabled his successors to rise to sovereign power; and pope Pius V. gave one of his descendants, Cosmo, (the great patron of the arts), the title of great duke of Tuscany, in 1570, which continued in his family to the death of Gaston de Medicis, in 1737, without issue. The great duchy was then claimed by the emperor Charles VI. as a nef of the empire, and given to his son-in-law, the duke of Lorraine, in lieu of the duchy of Lorraine, which was ceded to France by treaty. Leopold, his second son, became grand duke, from whom the government of Tuscany descended to the present grand duke Ferdinand, brother of Francis II. emperor of Austria. By the treaty of Luneville, (February, 1801), the grand duchy of Tuscany received the title of kingdom of Etruria, and was transferred to the hereditary prince of Parma. In the subsequent incorporations of Bonaparte, it was declared an integral part of the French empire; but on his downfall, in 1814, it was restored to the archduke Ferdinand, and resumed its proper designation of grand duchy.

TYLER, (Wat), a celebrated insurgent, by trade a blacksmith, who was the first to resist the imposition of the poll tax, in the commencement of the reign of Richard II. He led his men into Smithfield, where he was met by the king, who invited him to declare his grievances. Tyler ordered his companions to retire, till he should

give them a signal, boldly ventured to meet the king in the midst of his retinue, and accordingly began the conference. He required that all slaves should be set free; that all common-ages should be open to the poor as well as rich; and that a general pardon should be passed for the late outrages. Whilst he made these demands he occasionally lifted up his sword in a menacing manner; which insolence so raised the indignation of William Walworth, then mayor of London, attending on the king, that he stunned Tyler with a blow of his mace, while one of the king's knights, riding up, dispatched him with his sword.

TYRANTS, (Thirty), an aristocratical council, who usurped and conquered the government of the Athenians, B. C. 404. Critias was at the head of this council, who condemned to death Niceratus, the son of Nicias, Leon, and Antiphon, and banished Thrasylus and Anytus. After committing innumerable atrocities, they were deposed by the people, and ten decemvirs elected in their stead.

TYRE. This city was built in 1648, B. C. by the Sidonians, who fled from the Edomites when they conquered Sidon, after having been expelled from their own country by David. It was taken by Nebuchadnezzar in 572, after a siege of thirteen years. In 636 it came under the power of the Persians. In 332 it was taken, after a siege of six months, by Alexander the Great, and continued subject to the Seleucids, the Macedonian kings of Syria, till the Romans took possession of it in the year 66, B. C. After this it underwent the revolutions of Syria till 1099, when it was taken by the Franks. In 1183, the sultan of Egypt took it from them, but they soon recovered it, and kept it till 1259, when the Tartars, under Hakkaku, took it, together with the rest of Syria; but not keeping it long, it returned to the dominion of Egypt, till it was recovered by the Christians, in 1263; but in 1292 it was finally conquered by the sultans of Egypt, with the fate of which it has since been connected.

TYROL.—See *Hofr*.

TYRONE, (earl of), a celebrated leader in the Irish rebellion, who, in 1596 assumed the title of King of Ulster, and entered into a correspondence with Spain, whence he received a sup-

ply of arms and ammunition. During the violent contentions between Tyrone and the forces of the earl of Essex, then deputy of Ireland, every enormity was committed by both parties; but at length, in 1603, Tyrone's followers being reduced, he surrendered himself to the royal power. Thus the rebellion closed; but the reduction of Ireland, through the gloomy tracts of famine, pestilence, and blood, cost England no less a sum than 1,198,717l.

TYRREL, (Walter), a French gentleman, who, when hunting in the New Forest with William Rufus, let fly an arrow, which, glancing from a tree, struck the king in the breast, and instantly killed him. Tyrrel, fearful of suspicions, gained the sea shore, embarked for France and joined the cru-

sade, as a penance for his involuntary crime.

TYRREL, (Sir James) employed by Richard, duke of Gloucester, to murder his two nephews in the Tower. Tyrrel chose three associates, who, finding the young princes in bed, in a profound sleep, suffocated them with the bolster and pillows, and shewed their naked bodies to Tyrrel, who ordered them to be buried at the foot of the stairs, under a heap of stones. In the reign of Charles II. the bones of two persons were found in the place indicated, which corresponded, by their size, to the ages of Edward V. and his brother; and being judged the undoubted remains of these unhappy princes, were deposited in Westminster Abbey, under a marble tomb.

V.

VALENCIA, a large city in the east of Spain, the capital of the province of Valencia. It declared war against the French, and baffled the first attempts made on it in 1808, by their troops, but in the end of 1811, it was attacked by Suchet, and after a vigorous siege and bombardment, it surrendered in January, 1812.

VALENCIA, a city of South America, in the government of the Caracas and province of Venezuela. It remained firm to the cause of Ferdinand up to the year 1810, when it was compelled to submit to Miranda, and shortly after, in the same year, became the seat of the new congress of the United States of Venezuela. It was soon afterwards occupied by the royalist party; but in 1812, its possession was disputed by Miranda; and in 1813, it was entered by the independent general Bolivar, without any opposition.

VALENCIENNES, a fortified town of French Flanders. In 1793, this town formed one of the first objects of attack by the allies, after the defeat of Dumourier. The siege conducted under the command of the duke of York, was long and obstinate, and part of the town was laid in ashes before the capitulation. It was retaken by the French in 1794, escaped attack in the invasion by the allied powers in 1814 and 1815, and was definitively

confirmed to France by the treaties of these years.

VALENS, (Flavius), a son of Gratian, born in Pannonia. His brother Valentinian, took him as his colleague on the throne, and appointed him over the eastern parts of the Roman empire. By perseverance, Valens was enabled to distinguish himself in his wars against the northern barbarians. But his lenity to these savage intruders, proved fatal to the Roman power; and by permitting some of the Goths to settle in the provinces of Thrace, and to have free access to every part of the country, Valens encouraged them to make depredations on his subjects, and to disturb their tranquillity. His eyes were opened too late; he attempted to repel them, but he failed in the attempt. A bloody battle was fought, in which the barbarians obtained some advantage, and Valens was hurried away into a lonely house, which the Goths set on fire. Valens, unable to make his escape, was burnt alive in the 50th year of his age, after a reign of 13 years, A. D. 378.

VALENTINIAN I., a son of Gratian, raised to the imperial throne by his merit and valour. He kept the western part of the empire for himself, and appointed over the east, his brother Valens. He gave the most convincing proof of his military valour

HISTORY.

in the victories which he obtained over the barbarians in the provinces of Gaul, the deserts of Africa, and on the banks of the Rhine and Danube. The insolence of the Quadi he punished with great severity; and when these desperate and indigent barbarians had deprecated the conqueror's mercy, Valentinian treated them with contempt, and upbraided them with every mark of resentment. While he spoke with such warmth, he broke a blood-vessel, and fell lifeless on the ground. He was conveyed into his palace by his attendants, and soon after died, after suffering the greatest agonies, from violent fits and contortions of his limbs, on the 17th of November, A. D. 375. He was then in the 55th year of his age, and had reigned twelve years. About six days after the death of Valentinian, his second son, Valentinian II., was proclaimed emperor, though only five years old. He succeeded his brother, Gratian, A. D. 383, but his youth seemed to favour dissension, and the attempts and the usurpations of rebels. He was robbed of his throne by Maximus, four years after the death of Gratian; and in this helpless situation he had recourse to Theodosius, who was then emperor of the east. He was successful in his applications; Maximus was conquered by Theodosius, and Valentinian entered Rome in triumph, accompanied by his benefactor. He was some time after strangled by one of his officers, a native of Gaul, called Arbogastes. Valentinian reigned nine years. This happened the 15th of May, A. D. 392, at Vienne, one of the modern towns of France. He was fond of imitating the virtues and exemplary life of his friend and patron Theodosius, and if he had lived longer, the Romans might have enjoyed peace and security.

VALENTINIAN III., was son of Constantius and Placidia, the daughter of Theodosius the Great, and therefore, as related to the imperial family, he was saluted emperor in his youth, and publicly acknowledged as such, at Rome, the 3d of October, A. D. 423, about the 6th year of his age. He was at first governed by his mother, and the intrigues of his generals and courtiers; and when he came to years of discretion, he disgraced himself by violence, oppression, and

incontinence. He was murdered in the midst of Rome, A. D. 454, in the 36th year of his age, and thirty-first of his reign, by Petronius Maximus, to whose wife he had offered violence.

VALERIANUS, (Publius Licinius) a Roman, proclaimed emperor by the armies in Rhætia, A. D. 254. He took his son Gallienus, as his colleague in the empire, and showed the malevolence of his heart by persecuting the Christians whom he had for a while tolerated. He also made war against the Goths and Scythians; but in an expedition which he undertook against Sapor, king of Persia, his arms were attended with ill success. He was conquered in Mesopotamia, and when he wished to have a private conference with Sapor, the conqueror seized his person, and carried him in triumph to his capital, where he exposed him, and in all the cities of his empire, to the ridicule and insolence of his subjects. When the Persian monarch mounted on horseback, Valerian served as a footstool, and the many other insults which he suffered, excited indignation even among the courtiers of Sapor. The monarch, at last, ordered him to be flayed alive, and salt to be thrown over his mangled body, so that he died in the greatest torments. His skin was tanned, and painted in red; and that the ignominy of the Roman empire might be lasting, it was nailed in one of the temples of Persia. Valerian died in the 71st year of his age, A. D. 260, after a reign of seven years.

VALERIUS, (Publius) a celebrated Roman, surnamed Poplicola, from his popularity. He was very active in assisting Brutus to expel the Tarquins, and he was the first that took an oath to support the liberty and independence of his country. He was honoured with the consulship, on the expulsion of Collatinus, and he triumphed over the Etrurians, after he had gained the victory in the battle in which Brutus and the sons of Tarquin had fallen. Valerius died after he had been four times consul, and enjoyed the popularity, and received the thanks and the gratitude, which people redeemed from slavery and oppression usually pay to their patrons and deliverers. To do him honour, his body was buried at the public ex-

penoe. The Roman matrons mourned his death a whole year.

VALERIUS, (Corvinus) a tribune of the soldiers under Camillus. When the Roman army were challenged by one of the Senones, remarkable for his strength and stature, Valerius undertook to engage him, and obtained an easy victory, by means of a crow that assisted him, and attacked the face of the Gaul, whence his surname of Corvinus. Valerius triumphed over the Etrurians, and the neighbouring states that made war against Rome, and was six times honoured with the consulship. He died in the 100th year of his age, admired and regretted for many public and private virtues.

VALETTE, (Parisot John of) the 46th grand Master of the order of St. John of Jerusalem. During his reign the knights galleys took above fifty Turkish ships in less than five years, which so enraged Soliman II., that he resolved to lay siege to Malta, and drive the knights thence, as he did before, out of Rhodes, in 1522. He appointed Mustapha Bassa, general of the land, and Piali Bassa, commander of the sea forces, which set out from Constantinople in April, 1565, and arrived at Navarin, the 11th of May. The fleet consisted of one hundred and fifty galleys, nine men of war, nine maones and three caramoustats, or ships of burthen. On the 20th of May, they built two forts at the mouth of the port of Malta, and placed fourteen pieces of cannon in them. After a few skirmishes, the Turks were forced to retire to la Marte, where they encamped the 27th of May; the Bassa battered the fort of St. Elme, and after five assaults, took the castle on the 23d of June, but with the loss of 4000 of his best men. On the 28th, Mustapha laid siege to the isle of St. Michel, or city of Sengle, and the next day raised his batteries against the borough, which the grand Master had reinforced with 600 men. The Turks continued their batteries, and made a general assault the 21st of August, gained the walls, and planted seven standards over the gate de Bonne Enseigne: but the knights defeated them with great slaughter. Mustapha made several other efforts, until the 13th of September, when forty-nine Christian galleys arrived with succour, and he then embarked

with great precipitation and escaped by night. During the siege, most of the fortifications were ruined. The Turks lost 20,000 men, and about 9000 Christians died of their wounds. Valette rebuilt the city, which he called by his own name. He died in 1586.

VALMY, a village in the north-east of France, department of the Marne. An action was fought here in September, 1792, between the French and Prussians. Kellerman conducted it on the part of the French, and received from it, at a future date, the title of duke of Valmy.

VANDA, princess of Poland, who, refusing the hand of Rithogar, a Teutonic prince, became involved in a war with him, but the prince being defeated, killed himself in despair. Vanda, who was smitten with him, but despised his menaces, determined not to survive him, and accordingly drowned herself in the Wesel.

VANDALS, The, according to the most credible historians, were originally a Gothic nation, who came out of Scandinavia with the other Goths, and settled in the countries now known by the names of Mecklenburg and Brandenburg. Afterwards, another colony fixed their habitations in Pomerania; and, in process of time, they extended themselves into Dalmatia, Illyricum, and Dacia. They attacked Greece, whence they went even to Spain; and from that country, under the famous Genseric, passed over into Africa, where, for some time, they fixed the throne of their power. This prince reduced Carthage, Sardinia, Sicily, and all the islands between Italy and Africa. In 475, Genseric concluded a peace with the emperor Zeno, whom he compelled to renounce all claim to the provinces of Africa. Justinian afterwards gained a complete victory over the Vandals, and re-united the provinces of Africa to the Greek empire.

VANE, (Sir Henry) a statesman, was born in Kent, in 1589. In 1639, he was made treasurer of the household, and soon after, principal secretary of state; but, on joining in the prosecution of the earl of Strafford, he was removed from all his places. He died in 1654.

VANE, (Sir Henry) eldest son of the preceding, was born in 1612. He

HISTORY.

became governor of Massachusetts, but his conduct was so fanatical, that the settlement would have been ruined had he not been compelled to quit the country. In 1640 he was elected into parliament, where he was the principal mover of the solemn league and covenant, and also of the self-denying ordinance; but he took no part in the king's trial; and he resisted Cromwell to such a degree, that the usurper sent him to Carisbrooke castle. On the death of Oliver, he laboured to institute a perfect commonwealth, but the nation had already suffered too much by such speculations, and the ancient order being restored, he was brought to trial for treason, and condemned to be beheaded, which was put in execution on Tower-hill, June 14, 1662.

VARANES I., king of Persia, succeeded Hormisdas, A. D. 273.

VARANES II., son of the first, whom he succeeded, and reigned sixteen years. The emperor Carus, followed by Numerian, defeated the Persians in Mesopotamia, and dispossessed them of the towns of Seleucia and Ctesiphon, which they had taken from the Romans. This was about 283, and Varanes died in 294, without being successful or powerful enough to repair the loss.

VARANES III., son of Varanes II., was surnamed Segansa, and reigned only four months.

VARANES IV., called Kerman, was crowned king of Persia after Sapor III., in 389, and reigned eleven years.

VARANES, son of Isdigerdes, king of Persia, began to reign in 420, and is noted in the history of his time for the cruel persecution he raised against the Christians throughout all his dominions. After this persecution, he turned his arms against the Romans, who, under the command of Ardabure, defeated him upon several occasions. Varanes died in 441.

VARUS, (Quintilius) a Roman proconsul, descended from an illustrious family. He was appointed governor of Syria, and afterwards made commander of the armies in Germany. He was surprised by the enemy, under Arminius, a crafty and dissimulating chief, and his army was cut to pieces. When he saw that every thing was lost, he killed himself, A. D. 10, and

his example was followed by some of his officers.

VARNA, or **WARNA**, a large town of European Turkey, in Bulgaria. In 1444, when the relative skill of the Turks and Christians was very different from what it is at present, Uladislaus, king of Hungary and Poland, was here defeated by Sultan Amurath II.

VELI, a powerful city of Etruria, about twelve miles from Rome. It sustained many long wars against the Romans, and was at last taken and destroyed by Camillus, after a siege of ten years. At the time of its destruction, Veli was larger, and far more magnificent, than the city of Rome.

VELLORE, a town and fortress of the south of India, province of the Carnatic. In 1782 it was besieged by the whole army of Hyder Aly, but was relieved by sir Eyre Coote, with a very inferior army. After the capture of Seringapatam, Vellore was fixed upon for the place of confinement of the family of Tippoe Sultan. Since the conquest of Mysore, the fortress of Vellore has lost more of its consequence, and its fortifications are falling to decay.

VENDEE, a department in the west of France. It will be for ever memorable in the history of the French revolution, for the resistance made to the republican army in 1793, 1794, and 1795. It was attended for a time with great success, though commenced without any concert with the other royalists of France, and carried on for a season with very limited support from England. La Vendee was also the scene of some sharp fighting in 1815.

VENICE, is built upon a number of small islands, in the Adriatic Sea, or Gulph of Venice; and its situation is strong, beautiful, and romantic. With respect to the first establishment of the Venetian government, A. D. 421, it is said, that this multitude of people might have been thought a numerous seminary of philosophers, cultivating the duties of religion and virtue, and enjoying a perfect tranquillity. At this period the government seems to have been consular. It was afterwards changed into the tribunitian form, in 697, in which it continued for nearly three hundred years; but the

tribunes, abusing their power, the ducal government was established. The first doge was Paulatis, who made the nation happy, powerful, and wealthy, and who was succeeded by Marcello, Hypato, Theodato, Galla, Domescio, Monégaria, and Mauritio Galbaio. During the dogeship of Mauritio, the Venetians declared themselves a free and independent people, acknowledging neither the eastern nor the western empire. To him succeeded Giovanni and Obelerio, the ninth doge, under whom Venice was besieged and attacked by Pepin, son of Charlemagne, in 764, who, struck with the intrepidity of the Venetians, raised the siege, abandoned the enterprise, and concluded a peace with the republic. Under Pietro Tribuno, the seventeenth doge, in 903, the Huns having defeated Berengarius, entered Italy, and, induced by the wealth of the Venetian republic, resolved to sack and pillage the city. However, the doge was so bravely seconded by his troops, that the barbarians were completely broken and defeated, and the reputation of Venice for arms became famous over the world. Under the government of Ordelfapho, the thirty-fourth doge, the Venetians subdued Croatia, in consequence of which, the republic assumed the title of lords of Croatia; but the Hungarians entering Dalmatia, in 1089, attacked and defeated the Venetians, and cruelly butchered their wounded and prisoners. Ziani, the thirty-ninth doge, was no sooner elected, than the republic was involved in a war with Frederic Barbarossa, from whose persecution the pope Alexander had retired to Venice. However, the doge engaged the enemy at sea, in 1173, and took, sunk, and destroyed, forty-eight of their ships, and returned in triumph to Venice. Under the dogeship of Pietro Gradonico, the forty-ninth of the Venetian princes, a war took place with the Genoese, in 1291, who defeated the Venetian fleet at sea, and took Dandolo, the commander, prisoner; who, in the agony of despair, dashed out his brains against the side of the cabin where he was confined. After Bartolomeo Gradonico, the fifty-third Venetian prince, Andrea Dandolo next succeeded to the ducal chair, and war commenced with Genoa. The two

hostile fleets met and engaged on the Sardinian coast, in 1347, and the whole Genoese armament was taken or destroyed, with the exception of the admiral's ship alone. This defeat caused the utmost consternation at Genoa; and the Genoese, in their despair, requested that the duke of Milan would accept of the sovereignty of their dominions. Marino Faliero, the fifty-fifth doge, in 1353, formed the project of restoring the power to the people, through hatred of the nobles; but his design being discovered, he was tried in due form, and after acknowledging his crime, was beheaded in the hall of the great council. Thus the aristocracy of Venice was continued. During the sovereignty of Andrea Contarini, the sixtieth doge, war again occurred with Genoa, in 1378, and an obstinate naval engagement ensued, in which the Genoese were obliged to yield to the bravery of the Venetians, who captured the whole of their fleet. Andrea Contarina was succeeded by Michael Morosini, and, from this period, the meridian power and prosperity of Venice may be dated. During the government of Michael Steno, war was declared against Genoa, in 1403, and a dreadful battle took place between the hostile fleets, in which the Genoese lost seven ships, and nearly three thousand men. Under the government of Thomaso Moncenigo, the Venetians successfully exerted themselves against the Turks in the Morea, and against several petty sovereigns whose states they invaded in Dalmatia and Friuli. They also bought Corinth, in addition to Patras and Zara, which they had already purchased. Under Francisco Foscari, the sixty-fifth duke of Venice, in 1423, the Venetians waged war against Milan, Florence, Genoa, or rather against all Italy; and their general, Carmagnola, being convicted of a treasonable correspondence with the enemy, was beheaded. Foscari ruled the state in peace, and even with applause, during thirty-four years; but, at the expiration of that period, his son happened to die in exile, he became extremely melancholy, and unfit for the discharge of business. It was therefore determined, by a giunta of twenty-seven senators, that he should vacate the ducal chair, that a new doge should be elected to succeed

HISTORY.

him, and that a pension and certain honours should be allowed him in his retreat. Foscari died soon after of a broken heart, in consequence of this ungrateful treatment. He was succeeded by Pasquill Malipiero, in 1462, and Christophore Mora, under whose government hostilities were carried on against the Turks in the Morea; but, though the Venetians were assisted by an army of crusaders, the war proved unsuccessful. Mora was succeeded by Nicolao Trema, Nicola Marcello, Pietro Moncenigo, Andrea Vendramino, and Giovanni Moncenigo, during all of whose reigns a vigorous war was carried on with the Turks. After Marco Barbarico, his brother Agostino succeeded to the ducal chair, in 1486, during whose sovereignty Cyprus was annexed to the republic, and the wealth, grandeur, and power of Venice, continued to increase. A league was now formed between the emperor, Spain, the pope, the Venetians, and the duke of Milan, against the king of France. Under the dogeship of Leonardo Loretano, the league of Cambray was formed, in which the pope, king of France, as duke of Milan, the king of Arragon and Naples, the republic of Florence, and the dukes of Ferrara and Savoy, agreed to a partition of the Venetian states. At length war was declared by France against Venice, in 1508; the progress of the confederates was rapid, and the republic was plunged into the deepest distress. However, in 1511, the siege of Padua was raised; and after some time, a treaty was entered into between the pope and the Venetians, and the league was broken. The next year, the Venetians also took Cremona, Bastia, and Brescia; the emperor now secretly signed the treaty with them, and Louis offered terms of peace. Upon the death of Louis, in 1515, Francis I renewed the treaty with the Venetians; and the emperor, the pope, Ferdinand king of Arragon, the Swiss, and Sforza, entered into another. However, after some advantages gained on each side, peace was re-established. Loretano was succeeded by Antonio Grimani, Andrea Gritti, Pietro Lando, Francisco Donato, Marco Antonio Trevisiano, Francesco Veniero, Lorenzo Priuli, Jeronimo Priuli, and Petro Loretano,

during whose government, in 1569, Selim, emperor of Constantinople, formed designs upon Cyprus. A treaty was soon after formed between Spain, the Pope, and the Venetians. On the death of Loretano, Ladovico Moncenigo, the eighty-fifth doge, succeeded to the government, in 1578. In the following August, the Turkish troops landed without resistance at Port Salina, in Cyprus, of which they at length made themselves masters. A treaty was set on foot, hostages were exchanged, and a capitulation was effected on honourable terms. Bragadino, the Venetian commander, after having his ears, nose, and lips cut off, was stayed alive, by order of Mustapha, the Turkish general. The republic of Venice had enjoyed but a short respite from the horrors of war, when it was visited by the pestilence, in 1576, which cut off twenty-two thousand men, thirty thousand women, and eleven thousand children. Moncenigo was succeeded by Sebastiano Veniero, Nicola da Ponti, Pasquali Cicogna, Marino Grimani, and Leonardo Denato, during whose government a rupture, and consequent pacification, with the pope took place. Leonardo Donato was succeeded by Marcantonio Munio, Giovanni Bembo, Nicole Donato, and Antonio Priuli, the ninety-fourth doge. Antonio Priuli was succeeded by Francesco Contarino, Giovanni Cornaro, Francesco Krizzo, and Francesco Molino, the ninety-ninth doge, during whose government the first siege of Candia took place, and the Venetians gained several naval victories. This was likewise the case during the dogeships of Carlo Contarino, Francesco Cornaro, Bertuccio Valiero, Giovanni Pesaro, and Dominico Contarino, the hundred and fourth doge, during whose government the memorable siege and capture of Candia took place. His successors were Nicolo Secredo, Luigi Contarino, and Marcontiniano Guistiniano, the hundred and seventh doge, during whose government the Morea was subdued by the Venetians, in 1687. Giustiniano was succeeded by Francesco Morosino, and Sylvestro Valiero, the hundred and ninth doge, in 1698, during whose sovereignty the porte concluded peace with Venice, and left the republic in full possession of all

her conquests. Under his successors, Giovanni Cornaro, war broke out between the republic and the Turks, and was brought to a conclusion by Sebastiano Moncenigo, who, after the death of Cornaro, in 1725, was rewarded with the ducal crown. He was succeeded by Carlo Razzini, whose successors were Luigi Pisani, Pietro Grimaldi, Francesco Loretano, Marco Foscarini, and Alvisio Moncenigo. Under the government of Paulo Riniero, the republic engaged in an expensive and unprofitable war with the regency of Tunis, in 1789. Riniero was succeeded in the ducal chair by Luigo Manino, the last doge, during whose government nothing important occurred, till the invasion of Italy by the French. The Venetians, in order to check the progress of the republican forces, put Peschiera into the hands of the imperialists, in 1796; but Bonaparte quickly becoming master of all Italy, they endeavoured to conciliate the favour of France, by warning out of their territories the unfortunate brother of the late king, whom they treated with indignity and insult. At length, the hatred of the Venetians burst forth in the most outrageous manner. On the roads from Mantua to Legnano, and from Casano to Verona, upwards of two hundred French were assassinated; and at Verona all the French in that city were murdered. These and other outrages, of a similar nature, induced Bonaparte to issue a proclamation, in consequence of which the French troops over-ran and subjugated, in a few days, all the Venetian dominions; and the senate formally submitted to the French commander, in 1797; and consented to deliver up those persons who had been instrumental in the late atrocities. On the 16th of May, the French took possession of the city of Venice, and established a provincial government on the republican plan. By the treaty of Campo Formio, Venice, with most of its dependencies, was ceded to the emperor of Germany; and the treaty of Presburg united it to the kingdom of Italy. After the abdication by Bonaparte of the thrones of France and Italy, Venice was united by the congress of Vienna to the territories of the house of Austria. Thus the ancient republic of Venice, so long mistress of

the Adriatic, finally terminated in a complete dependency of Austria, in 1814.

VERCINGETORIX, a famous Gaul, who waged war against Cæsar. He formed a powerful league against the Romans, but it being discovered, he was banished. He next gathered forces and entered Clarimont, and was declared king and general of the Gauls.

VERE, (Francis,) an English general, was the grandson of John Vere, earl of Oxford, and born in 1554. He served first in the Netherlands, under the earl of Leicester, and next under lord Willoughby, who, for his conduct in the defence of Bergen-op-Zoom, conferred on him the honour of knighthood. After this he threw supplies into the town of Berg, on the Rhine, in which hazardous service he received many wounds. In 1594, he took a fort near Zutphen by stratagem, and was chiefly instrumental in the capture of Deventer. In 1596, he was recalled from the Netherlands, and employed in the expedition against Cadiz, with the title of lord marshal. The last great action of this gallant commander was the defence of Ostend, where he succeeded in repelling, with a small garrison of twelve hundred men, an army of ten thousand. Sir Francis died Aug. 28, 1606, and was buried in Westminster abbey.

VERE, (Sir Horace) Baron of Tilbury, younger brother of the preceding, was born at Kirby-hall in Essex, in 1565. He served with his brother in the Netherlands, and had a considerable share in the victory near Nieuport; as he afterwards had in the defence of Ostend. In the reign of James I. he commanded the forces sent to the assistance of the elector Palatine; on which occasion he effected a memorable retreat from Spinola, the Spanish general. He was the first person raised to the peerage by Charles I. He died in 1635.

VERGENNES, (Charles Gravier, count de,) an eminent statesman, was born at Dijon in 1719. On the accession of Louis XVI. to the throne he was recalled, and made secretary of state for foreign affairs. In this situation, he distinguished himself by what he, no doubt, considered a master-stroke of policy, that of separating England

HISTORY.

and her colonies; but in this he only accelerated a more fatal blow to his own country. He died at Versailles, Feb. 13, 1787.

VERMONT, one of the United States. The first settlements began about 1724; and, till the year 1764, Vermont was considered under the jurisdiction of New Hampshire, when, by act of parliament it was annexed to New York. When the war commenced against England, the inhabitants seized the opportunity to declare themselves free and independent. Various means were employed to detach them from the American cause, which were at last defeated by an arrangement with the state of New York in 1790, as to their mutual claims, and by her admission into the federal union the year following. The new constitution of this state was finally adopted in 1793.

VERNON, (Edward) an English admiral, was born in Westminster, but of a Staffordshire family, Nov. 12, 1684. His father was secretary of state to King William, and reluctantly suffered him to enter into the sea service under admiral Hopson. In 1704 he was with sir George Rooke, at the battle of Malaga. After a variety of service under different commanders, he was made vice-admiral of the blue in 1739, and sent with a squadron to Spanish America, where he took Porto Bello, and destroyed the fortifications; but in 1741, he proved unsuccessful in an attack upon Carthage. On his return home, he was employed in guarding the coasts of Kent and Sussex during the rebellion; but soon after he was superseded, and even struck off the list of admirals for acting in opposition to the ministry. He died Oct. 29, 1757.

VERONA, a large city of Austrian Italy. It was taken by Charlemagne in 774; became subsequently a free town; fell, in the course of time, under the sway of leading families; and in 1405, was united to the territorial possessions of Venice. It enjoyed peace and tranquillity till the year 1796, when Italy was invaded by the French. It was then added to the kingdom of Italy. In 1814, it again fell into the hands of Austria.

VERRES, (C.) a Roman who governed the province of Sicily as prætor. The oppression and rapine

of which he was guilty, while in office, so offended the Sicilians, that they brought an accusation against him before the Roman senate. Cicero undertook the cause of the Sicilians. Verres was defended by Hortensius, but as he despaired of the success of his defence, he left Rome without waiting for his sentence, and lived in great affluence in one of the provinces. He was at last killed by the soldiers of Antony the triumvir, about 26 years after his voluntary exile from the capital.

VERULAM, an ancient Roman city and colony in Hertfordshire, the royal city of Cassibellanus. It was taken by Julius Cæsar, 52 years, B. C. in his second expedition into Britain, and under Dioclesian had 'one famous martyr called Albanus. In 429 a British synod was held here by St. German, bishop of Auxerre in France, against the Pelagians. Soon after it fell into the hands of the Saxons about 465, but was re-taken by Uther Pendragon, who began his reign in 498, and reigned 18 years. It was re-taken by the Saxons, and entirely ruined. In 978, Offa, a king of the Mercians, built on the other side of the little river which washed the walls of it, a monastery in honour of St. Alban. It became a great town, and is now called St. Albans. King James I. revived the memory of this place, when he made sir Francis Bacon, then lord chancellor of England, lord Verulam in 1620. The venerable abbey is esteemed by antiquarians as one of the finest in England. Part of it is, however, in a dilapidated state, owing to the want of funds for repairs.—(See *St. Albans*.)

VERUS, (Lucius Cælonius Commodus) a Roman emperor, son of Ælius and Domitia Lucilla. He was sent by M. Aurelius to oppose the barbarians in the east. His arms were attended with success, and he obtained a victory over the Parthians. He was honoured with a triumph on his return home, and soon after he marched with his imperial colleague against the Marcomanni in Germany. He died in this expedition of an apoplexy, in the 30th year of his age, after a reign of eight years and some months.

VESPASIANUS, (Titus Flavius) a Roman emperor, descended from an

obscure family at Reate. He was honoured with the consulship, not so much by the influence of the imperial courtiers, as by his own private merit, and his public services. He accompanied Nero into Greece, but he offended the prince by falling asleep while he repeated one of his poetical compositions. This momentary resentment of the emperor did not prevent Vespasian from being sent to carry on a war against the Jews. His operations were crowned with success; many of the cities of Palestine surrendered, and Vespasian began the siege of Jerusalem. This was, however, achieved by the hands of his son Titus. After the death of Otho, he was induced by his army to become emperor; and he easily overcame Vitellius. The choice of the army was approved by every province of the empire; but Vespasian did not betray any signs of pride at so sudden and so unexpected an exaltation, and he behaved, when invested with the imperial purple, with all the dignity and greatness which became a successor of Augustus. In the beginning of his reign, Vespasian attempted to reform the manners of the Romans, and he took away an appointment which he had a few days before granted to a young nobleman who approached him to return him thanks, all smelling of perfumes, and covered with ointment; adding, I had rather you had smelt of garlic. After he had reigned with great popularity for ten years, Vespasian died with a pain in his bowels, A. D. 79, in the 70th year of his age, to the great grief of all the empire. He was the first of the Roman emperors who was succeeded by his own son on the throne. Vespasian has been admired for his great virtues.

VESUVIUS, eruptions of, 79, A. D. when two cities were buried in burning lava, with 250,000 people; 203, 272, 473, when all Campania was destroyed; 512, 685, 993, 1036, 1043, 1048, 1136, 1506, 1538; at Puzzoli, 1631, 1632, when 4,000 persons and a large track of land were destroyed; 1660, 1682, 1694, 1701, 1704, 1712, 1717, 1730, 1737, 1751, 1754, 1760, 1766, 1767, 1770, 1771, 1779, 1785, 1786, 1787, 1794, 1810, 1814, 1816, 1817, 1821, 1822.

569

VIASMA, a town in the interior of European Russia, in the province of Smolensko, was in the road of the French both in their advance and retreat in 1812, and was the scene of partial engagements on both occasions, in the course of which the town was burnt.

VICTOR I. the first bishop of Rome of this name, an African, succeeded Eleutherius in 193. He was martyred under the emperor Severus, July 28, 201.

VICTOR II. bishop of Aichster in Germany, was chosen at Mayence, led to Rome by the emperor Henry III. and crowned in 1055. He died at Florence two years after.

VICTOR III. priest cardinal, was chosen after Gregory VII. in 1086. He died at Mount Cassian in 1087.

VIENNA, the capital of the Austrian empire, was captured in 1484, by the Hungarians, but after the death of their king it was restored to Austria. In 1529, the Turks destroyed its suburbs. In 1619, the Bohemian insurgents, supported by a party in Austria, penetrated into the city. But the attack most generally known to the readers of history was that of 1683, made by a Turkish army, supported by disaffected chiefs in Hungary, but repulsed by Sobieski, king of Poland. In the present age it was threatened by Bonaparte in 1797, and occupied by him in 1805 and 1809. On both occasions proper discipline was observed by the invaders, and little injury was done.

VIENNA, Treaty of, between Austria and France, in 1809. The decisive battle of Wagram led to an armistice, which the emperor of Germany was compelled to sue for, which, after a protracted negotiation, was followed by a treaty of peace. According to the terms of this treaty Austria ceded a great portion of her territory; agreed to a contribution to indemnify France for the expenses of the war, and acknowledged Joseph Bonaparte king of Spain. To the king of Bavaria she gave up Salzburg, and a tract of country along the banks of the Danube, from Passau to Lintz. No the king of Saxony she yielded the whole of western Galicia. To Russia so much of the eastern part of that province as contained a

HISTORY.

population of 40,000 souls. To France she ceded Fiume and Trieste, with the whole of the country south of the Saave, to where that river enters Bosnia. She also gave up the inhabitants of the Tyrol, on condition of their receiving from Bonaparte a full and free pardon. Such was the fatal effects of the battle of Wagram, of which the Austrians gave so favourable an account, and claimed as a victory.

VILLARS, (Louis Hector, duke of) a French general, was born at Moulins, in 1653. After a variety of services, he gained the battle of Friedlingen in 1702; for which he was made marshal of France. The following year he took the fortress of Kell, and put an end to the insurrection in the Cevennes, for which he was created duke of Villars. In 1707 he forced the lines at Stolhoffen; but in 1709 he lost the battle of Malplaquet, and was wounded. In 1712 he acquired glory by forcing the entrenchments of Demain on the Scheidt, which exploit was succeeded by the capture of Marchiennes, Douay, Bouchain, Landau, and Friburg. The peace of Radstadt followed; after which marshal Villars was made president of the council of war, and minister of state. In 1733 he commanded in Italy, with the title of marshal-general of the French camps and armies. He died at Turin, June 17, 1734.

VILLIERS, (George) duke of Buckingham, was the son of sir George Villiers, of Brookesby in Leicestershire, and born there in 1592. He attracted the notice of James I. at the performance of the play of Ignoramus, in 1615; soon after which he was successively appointed cup-bearer to the king, gentleman of the bed-chamber, and knight of the garter. He also rose to the rank of marquis, and became lord admiral of England, warden of the Cinque Ports, and master of the horse. But in 1623 he lost the royal favour, in a great degree, by persuading prince Charles to visit the court of Spain, for the purpose of paying his addresses in person to the Infanta. Though Buckingham was created a duke in his absence, it was supposed that if the king had lived, his fall would have been as rapid as his rise. The accession of Charles in 1625 increased the power of the favourite,

but it also multiplied his enemies and injured his master. The nation hated Buckingham, and two parliaments, for impeaching him, were dissolved. At this period the duke involved the kingdom in a disgraceful war with France, and went himself on an expedition to the Isle of Rhe, where he lost the flower of his army. He then returned to repair his fleet, and was about to sail for Rochelle, when he was assassinated, at Portsmouth, by Felton, a fanatical lieutenant, August 23, 1628.

VILLIERS, (George), the second duke of Buckingham, was the son of the preceding, and born in 1627. After studying at Cambridge, he went abroad, and on his return entered into the royal army, for which he was deprived of his estate by the parliament, but recovered a great part of it in 1657, by marrying the daughter of lord Fairfax. At the restoration he was made one of the lords of the bed-chamber, lord-lieutenant of Yorkshire, and master of the horse. Of these honours, however, he was deprived in 1666, for being concerned in a plot to effect a change of government. Notwithstanding this, he recovered the royal favour, and retained it, after perpetrating some shocking crimes; one of which was the killing lord Shrewsbury in a duel, and debauching his countess; and another, the hiring of blood to seize the duke of Ormond in his coach. In 1678, the duke, with the earls of Shaftesbury and Salisbury, and lord Wharton, were sent to the Tower, by order of the house of peers, for contempt. On a petition to the king, however, they were all released. This profligate nobleman died at an obscure house at Kirkby Moorside, of a fever, April 16, 1698.

VIMIERA, a village of Portuguese Estremadura. It is remarkable for a battle between the British, under sir Arthur Wellesley, and the French, under Junot, 21st August, 1808. The French commenced the attack on various points with their usual impetuosity, and met with a resistance to which they had long been unaccustomed. The flower of their troops made a charge against general Ferguson's division, who received them with a tremendous volley, which brought them to the bayonet, and in one moment their front rank fell like

a line of grass from the mower's scythe. They gave way, and abandoned six pieces of cannon in their flight. Having failed in their other attacks, they commenced a retreat, after sustaining a loss of 3000 men, and thirteen pieces of cannon. In this decisive victory not more than half the British army was engaged.

VINCENT, (Cape St.) the south-west point of Portugal, noted for the naval victory gained off it, on the 14th February, 1797, by sir John Jervis.

VIRGINIA, one of the United States. The first settlements were made here by sir Walter Raleigh in 1567. In 1661 the laws of England were adopted as provincial laws. The colonists suffered great injury in 1673, from a Dutch squadron, which ravaged the coast, and also from insurrections, which broke out in 1675 and 1676; the last of which, called Bacon's rebellion, cost the province 100,000l. currency. In 1754, colonel Washington surprised and took Fort du Quesne; but was afterwards obliged to yield to superior force. Virginia showed great opposition to the arbitrary measures of the British government, in 1765 and 1769. In 1781, it became the theatre of war.

VISCIMER, king of Poland, who succeeded Lech. He died, after a long and glorious reign, and left the nation exhausted by his victories, and ruined by his conquests.

VISIGOTHS. (See *Goths*.)

VITELLIUS AULUS, a Roman raised by his vices to the throne. He was descended from one of the most illustrious families of Rome, and as such he gained an easy admission to the palace of the emperors. He passed through all the offices of the state, and gained over the soldiery by donations and liberal promises. He was at the head of the Roman legions in Germany when Otho was proclaimed emperor, and the exaltation of his rival was no sooner heard in the camp, than he was likewise invested with the purple by his soldiers. He accepted with pleasure the dangerous office, and instantly marched against Otho. Three battles were fought, and in all Vitellius was conquered. A fourth, however, in the plains between Mantua and Cremona, left him master of the field, and of the Roman empire. He feasted his eyes in viewing the

bodies of the slain and the ground covered with blood, and regardless of the insalubrity of the air, proceeding from so many carcases, he told his attendants that the smell of a dead enemy was always sweet. His first care was not like that of a true conqueror, to alleviate the distresses of the conquered, or patronise the friends of the dead, but it was to insult their misfortunes, and to intoxicate himself with the companions of his debauchery in the field of battle. Each successive day exhibited a scene of greater extravagance, which, though it delighted his favourites, soon raised the indignation of the people. Vespasian was proclaimed emperor by the army, and his minister Primus was sent to destroy the imperial glutton. Vitellius concealed himself under the bed of the porter of his palace, but this obscure retreat betrayed him, he was dragged naked through the streets, his hands were tied behind his back, and a drawn sword was placed under his chin to make him lift his head. After suffering the greatest insults from the populace, he was at last carried to the place of execution, and put to death with repeated blows. His head was cut off and fixed to a pole, and his mutilated body dragged with a hook and thrown into the Tiber, A.D. 69, after a reign of one year, except twelve days.

VITTORIA, battle of, was fought on the 21st of June, 1813, between the army of lord Wellington, and that of the French general Jourdan, in which the latter was defeated. On the 19th, the French rear-guard was driven back toward Vittoria; and on the 21st a general engagement took place, in which the French forces, commanded by Joseph Bonaparte, having marshal Jourdan as his major-general, were so completely defeated, that they were under the necessity of abandoning all their artillery, ammunition, baggage, and cattle. One hundred and fifty-one pieces of cannon, and four hundred and fifteen ammunition wagons were taken on the field; and among the trophies was the baton of marshal Jourdan. The loss of the allies was about seven hundred killed, and four thousand wounded, but that of the French was considerably greater. The operations commenced with a successful movement of sir Rowland

HISTORY.

Hill, to obtain the heights of Puebla, which the enemy had neglected to strengthen, and which they made strenuous but fruitless efforts to retake. Under cover of these heights, general Hill passed the Zadora at La Puebla, and took a village in front of the enemy's line. The fourth and light division passed the Zadora immediately after general Hill had occupied the village Sabijana; and almost as soon as these divisions had crossed, the earl of Dalhousie's column arrived at Mendonza; and the third division, under sir Thomas Picton, crossed the bridge higher up, followed by the 7th division. These four divisions, forming the centre of the army, were destined to attack the right of the enemy's centre, while general Hill moved forward to attack the left. The enemy abandoned his position in the valley, and retreated in good order towards Vittoria, but was soon obliged to leave the whole artillery, ammunition, and baggage to the conquerors.

VOLOGESES, king of Parthia, succeeded Vorlonea. He invaded Armenia, and afterwards turned his arms against the Romans; but at length the ancient alliance was renewed between Rome and Parthia.

VOLSCI, or VOLCI, a people of Latium, whose territories were bounded on the south by the Tyrrhene sea, north, by the country of the Hernici and Marsi, west, by the Latins and Rutulians, and east, by Campania. Their chief cities were Antium, Circeii, Anxur, Corioli, Fregellæ, Arpinum, &c. Ancus, king of Rome, made war against them; and in the time of the republic they became formidable enemies, till they were at last conquered with the rest of the Latins.

VORTIGERN, the chief of Britain, upon the Romans quitting this island, about 447. The Britons being threatened with an invasion from the Scots and Picts, they addressed him from all parts for relief, and at last made him summon a general council of the nation, to provide against their approaching ruin. King Vortigern, in the name of all the Britains, sent ambassadors to the Saxons, who, having first consulted their gods, readily complied

with his desire. All things being fairly agreed on, and the isle of Thanet in Kent bestowed upon them, for their encouragement, they landed in the island in 450, under the command of Hengist and Horsa, who shortly after encountered the Picts, then advanced as far as Stamford in Lincolnshire, and put them to flight. Thus the Britons, under king Vortigern, defeated the Picts, by the help of the Saxons. They soon quarrelled with the Britons, and wars ensued, which ended at last in the total overthrow and ruin of the natives. Vortigern now retired into Wales, and built a strong castle in Radnorshire. His son Vortimer reigned in his stead, who bore a strong hand against the Saxons; but he dying before his father, Vortigern resumed the government. He had two wives; one of them daughter of Hengist. On being restored to the crown, he was disposed to conclude a new treaty with his father-in-law; and both parties met without weapons. But Hengist's design being to murder, ordered his men to be secretly armed, and gave them the watchword for execution; so that a quarrel being designedly raised, his men, upon the signal, stabbed each his next man; and no less than 300 perished by this treachery. They spared the life of Vortigern, but they kept him in custody till he granted Hengist, for his ransom, those provinces which were afterwards called Essex, Sussex, and Middlesex.

VOYER, (Marc. Rene), Marquis d'Argenson, a statesman, was born in 1652, at Venice, where his father was then ambassador from France. He was brought up to the law, and became lieutenant-general of the police at Paris; which city never enjoyed more security than under his administration. His conduct in this situation procured him the rank of counsellor of state; and in 1718 he was made keeper of the seals, and president of the council of finance. In 1720, he was appointed minister of state; but soon after, he was deprived of that and all his places, for what cause has never been ascertained. He died in 1721.

U.

UCLES, a petty town of the interior of Spain, fifty-three miles east-south-east of Madrid. Its neighbourhood was the scene of several actions between the Moors and Spaniards, particularly one in 1108, in which the latter were defeated with great loss.

ULM, a considerable town in the south west of Germany. After the battle of Blenheim, (in 1704), it sustained a siege. In 1800, it was the scene of military manoeuvres, conducted, on the part of Moreau, with great skill; and it was here that in 1805, the errors of Mack, and the combinations of Bonaparte, led to the surrender of an Austrian army. In 1810, it was transferred from Bavaria to Wirtemberg, to which government it continues subject.

URBAN II. elected pope in 1085. He excommunicated the emperor, Henry VIII., and in 1093 he held a council at Clermont, famous for the commencement of the first crusade. He died in 1099, and was succeeded by Paschal II.

URBAN VIII., a celebrated pope, whose family name was Maffei Barberini, was born at Florence in 1568. He was educated under the Jesuits, and studied the law at Pisa; after which he entered into orders, and in 1606 attained the rank of cardinal. In 1623 he was elected to the papal chair, in which station he displayed great zeal against the Jansenists. He created no less than seventy-four cardinals. He died in 1644.

USHANT, a small island on the north-west coast of France. A naval engagement took place near this, on the 27th July, 1788, between the English and French, in which both claimed the victory. The force was great (full thirty sail of the line) on both sides, and the indecisive result of the action caused much discontent in England, and led to vehement altercations between the adherents of the two admirals; but the fact was, that the French evaded a close action, and the plan of breaking the line, and forcing an enemy to stand, or sacrifice a part of his fleet, was not at that time discovered.

UMBRIA. The Umbri originally possessed the greatest part of Italy. The Pelasgi expelled them from a great part of their possessions, and the Etruscans expelled the Pelasgi. The Umbri retired beyond the Apennines to a country which was long after called by their name. In 356 B. C., the Gauls seized part of this country, and held it till they were dispossessed by the Romans in 221, B. C. The rest of Umbria had been part of the Roman empire from the year 207, B. C. This country afterwards underwent the revolutions of Rome, and constituted a principal part of the exarchate, of which Ravenna, a city in this district, was the metropolis; but in 752 an end was put to the exarchate, by the Lombards, under Aistulphus, who expelled the eunuch Eutychius, the last exarch. In 774, Charlemagne gave this territory to the popes, when he had put an end to the empire of the Lombards.

UNIVERSITIES exhibit the progress of learning in a country, and on that account we give the following list, with their dates of foundation:—Aberdeen, 1492. Abo, 1640. Alba Julia, Transylvania, 1629. Altorf, 1581. St. Andrews, 1411. Anjou, 1349; 1364. Avignon, 1388. Basil, 1458. Bezancon, 1540. Bologna, 423. Bruges, 1665. Caduris, 1320. Caen, 1417. Cambridge, 900; revived, 1110. Cambridge, New England, 1630. Cologne, refounded, 1389. Compostella, 1517. Coimbra, 1503. Constantinople, 425. Copenhagen, 1539, 1569. Cordova, 968. Cracow, 700. Dijon, 1722. Dillingin, 1565. Dola, 1426. Douay, 1562. Dresden, 1694. Dublin, 1591. Edinburgh, 1580. Erfurt, 1390. Evora, 1569. Ferrara, 1316. Florence, 1438. Francker, 1585. Frankfurt, on the Oder, 1506. Friburg, 1460. Geneva, 1365. Gressen, 1607. Glasgow, 1450. Goettingen, 1734. Granada, 1537. Gripswald, 1547. Groningen, 1614. Heidelburgh, 1346. Helmetadt, 1576. Jena, or Sala, 1548. Ingelstadt, 1573. Koningsberg, 1544. Leyden, 1575. Leipzig, 1409. Louvaine, 926. Lyons, 830. Marpurg, 1527. Mechlin, 1440. Mentz,

HISTORY.

1482. Montpellier, 1196. Moscow, 1764. Munster, 1491. Naples, 1216. Orleans, 1312. Oxford, 886. Paderborne, 1592. Padua, 1179. Pavia, 791. Paris, 792. Perugia, 1290. Petersburg, 1747. Pisa, 1339. Poitiers, 1430. Prague, 1360. Ronthien, 1619. Regmont, 1544. Rhemes, 1145. Rostock, 1415. Salamanca, 1240. Saragossa, 1474. Sena, 1387. Seville, 1617. Sorbonne, 1253. Strasbourg, 1588. Thoulouse, 809. Toledo, 1518. Treves, 1473. Tubingen, 1477. Turin, 1412. Valencia, 1475. Venice, 1592. Vienna, 1236. Upsal, 1477. Utrecht, 1636. Wurtzburg, 1402. Wurtemberg, 1562.

UNITED STATES. The principal events of the history of the United States, are as follows: On the 4th July, 1776, congress declared the independence of the colonies. In December of the same year, congress adjourned to Baltimore, and gave Washington full powers. Soon after followed the battle of Trenton, in which nine hundred Hessians were taken prisoners. On January 3, 1777, was fought the battle of Princeton, in which the British were defeated. In October of the same year, happened the convention of Saratoga, by which general Burgoyne surrendered his whole army. On the 16th of August, 1780, was fought the battle of Camden, in which the Americans were defeated with great loss; an event which was soon after followed by the capture of Major Andre as a spy, September 21. On the 19th of October, 1781, happened the convention of Yorktown, by which Cornwallis's army surrendered to Washington. The independence of the United States was acknowledged by Sweden, in February, 1783; in the following March, by Spain; and in July, by Russia. On the 23d of September, the definitive treaty of peace between the United States and Great Britain, was signed at Paris. In 1787 and 1788, the respective conventions of the states adopt the new constitution. In 1789, George Washington was elected president, and John Adams vice-president, and both were again elected to the same honour in March, 1793. On the 19th of November, 1794, a treaty of amity and commerce was concluded between the United States, and Great Britain. In November,

1796, president Washington addressed a farewell letter to the people of the United States, and declined a re-election. In March, 1797, John Adams was inaugurated president, and Thomas Jefferson vice-president. The death of George Washington took place Dec. 14, 1799, in the 68th year of his age; and about the same time, that of Patrick Henry, a distinguished patriot. In 1800, the seat of government was removed to Washington. On the 22d of June, 1807, the Armenian frigate Chesapeake, attacked by British ship Leopard, in violation of the subsisting peace, and several Americans were killed and wounded; and in July following, president Jefferson issued a proclamation, forbidding British vessels of war to enter the ports of the United States. On the 18th June, 1812, war was declared by the United States against Great Britain. In August, 1814, the Americans were defeated at Bladensburg, and the city of Washington entered by the British. On the 8th January, 1815, happened a signal defeat of the British at New Orleans, in which they lost 3,600 men, and the Americans only 1300. The present president Monroe, was inaugurated on the 4th of March, 1817, and again on the same day in 1821.

UTICA, now Satcov, a celebrated city of Africa, on the coast of the Mediterranean, on the same bay as Carthage, founded by a Tyrian colony above 237 years before Carthage. It had a large and commodious harbour, and it became the metropolis of Africa, after the destruction of Carthage in the third Punic war, and the Romans granted it all the lands situated between Hippo and Carthage. It is celebrated for the death of Cato, who from thence is called Uticensis, or of Utica.

UTRECHT, treaty of, was concluded in 1713, between the allies and the French. The first stipulation of this famous treaty was, that Philip, acknowledged king of Spain, should renounce all right to the crown of France, the union of two such powerful kingdoms being thought dangerous to the liberties of Europe. It was agreed that the duke of Berry, Philip's brother, and after him in succession, should also renounce his right to the crown of Spain, in case he became

king of France. It was stipulated, that the duke of Savoy should possess the island of Sicily, with the title of king, together with Fenestrelles, and other places on the continent, which increase of dominion was in some measure made out of the spoils of the French monarchy. The Dutch had that barrier granted them, which they so long sought after; and if the crown of France was deprived of some dominions to enrich the duke of Savoy, on the other hand the house of Austria was taxed to supply the wants of the Hollanders, who were put in possession of the strongest towns in Flanders. With regard to England, its glory and its interests were secured. The fortifications of Dunkirk, an harbour that might be dangerous to their trade in time of war, were ordered to be demolished, and its port destroyed.

Spain gave up all right to Gibraltar, and the island of Minorca. France resigned her pretensions to Hudson's-bay, Nova Scotia, and Newfoundland; but they were left in possession of Cape Breton and the liberty of drying their fish upon the shore. Among these articles, glorious to the English nation, their setting free the French protestants confined in the prisons and gallees for their religion, was not the least meritorious. For the emperor, it was stipulated, that he should possess the kingdom of Naples, the duchy of Milan, and the Spanish Netherlands. The king of Prussia was to have Upper Guelder; and a time was fixed for the emperor's acceding to those articles, as he had for some time obstinately refused to assist at the negotiation.

W.

WAGRAM, a village of Germany, in Lower Austria, on the river Rusbach, celebrated for a great battle fought between the French and Austrians, in 1809. By the 4th of July, the French had completed the new bridge from the Isle of Lobau across a branch of the Danube, in which they were much favoured both by the ground and by an immense number of artillery. The imperial and royal army was drawn up on the eminence behind the river Russ, extending its right wing beyond Sussesbrunn and Kagrau, and its left beyond Markgrafen Neusiedel. The centre was posted near Wagram. The French having, in the night between the 4th and 5th, crossed over to the left bank of the Danube, and large masses appeared very early in the morning in the plain. Not long before noon they attacked the line of the imperial and royal army on all its points; but their greatest exertions were directed against the centre, probably with a view of forcing it. These attacks, though repeated with the greatest impetuosity, and supported by an immense train of artillery, among which were many batteries of the heaviest calibre, proved this day abortive. The firing ceased at ten o'clock at night. The imperial and royal army had, on the whole of its line, maintained its positions, and

made a considerable number of prisoners, among whom were many Saxon, Badense, Italian, and Portuguese soldiers. On the 6th, in the morning, at four o'clock, the French renewed their attacks with still larger masses, and greater impetuosity than on the preceding day. Even thus his efforts against the centre and the right wing were attended with so little success, that the latter had even gained such advantages as to justify the expectation of the completest victory, when the French, with fresh divisions, and great superiority, suddenly penetrated the left wing, near Markgrafen Neusiedel, and succeeded, after an obstinate engagement, in compelling it to retreat. One of the wings of the royal and imperial army being thereby exposed, his imperial and royal highness the archduke and generalissimo, directed the army to retreat by the way of Siammersdorf and the Bisamhill; in consequence of which, the army now occupied a new position, covering the communication with Bohemia. This retreat was made good, in the best order, and without material loss. In the centre, as well as in the right wing, the French suffered very considerably. 6000 prisoners were taken from them, among whom were three generals. They likewise lost twelve cannon, with am-

HISTORY.

munition, and were in every respect so much weakened, that they did not attempt to pursue the royal and imperial army any farther. General Lasalle was amongst the dead. Though the preceding account of this battle, given officially by the Austrians, may appear in some degree of a favourable nature, yet the results of that battle were very humiliating to the Austrian emperor and his dominions.

WALCHEREN, (expedition to). With a view to occasion a further diversion on behalf of the Austrians, and also to attempt the capture or destruction of the French vessels lying in the Scheldt, a British army of fifty thousand men was landed in 1809, on the island of Walcheren; but a considerable time having elapsed prior to the reduction of Flushing, the enemy collected a numerous force, raised several formidable batteries, and conveyed their ships up the river, beyond fort Lillo. That part of the country also, where the English might have landed, was completely inundated. Walcheren, the only fruit of this expensive and unfortunate expedition, was to have been retained by the conquerors, for the purpose of shutting up the mouth of the Scheldt, and of facilitating the introduction of British manufactures into Holland. This design, however, was rendered abortive by the unhealthiness of the climate; and after great numbers of the troops had fallen a sacrifice, the British army evacuated the island on the 9th of December, having previously destroyed the fortifications, arsenal, docks, and basin. Some old ships filled with stores were also sunk at the entrance of the Scheldt, to preclude an escape of the French fleet from the place of its retreat.

WALDEMAR, elected king of Sweden, on the death of Eric, in 1251. In 1266, he assumed the reins of government, and soon after set out on a pilgrimage to Rome and Jerusalem, and having entrusted the government to Magnus, during his absence, a dispute arose, and Sweden was divided between them; but at length, in 1276, Waldemar abdicated the crown by treaty, and retired to Denmark.

WALES. The ancient history of Wales is uncertain, on account of the number of petty princes who governed it. It was formerly inhabited by

three different tribes of the Britons; the Silures, the Dimetæ, and the Ordovices. These people do not appear ever to have been entirely subdued; though part of their country, as appears from the ruins of castles, was bridled by garrisons. Though the Saxons conquered the counties of Monmouth and Hereford, yet they never penetrated farther, and the Welch remained an independent people, governed by their own princes and their own laws. About the year 870, Roderic, king of Wales, divided his dominions among his three sons; and the names of these divisions were, Demetia, or South Wales; Povesia, or Powis-land; and Venedotia, or North Wales. This division gave a mortal blow to the independency of Wales. About the year 1112, Henry I. of England planted a colony of Flemings on the frontiers of Wales, to serve as a barrier to England, none of the Welch princes being powerful enough to oppose them. They made, however, many vigorous and brave attempts against the Norman kings of England, to maintain their liberties. In 1237, the crown of England was first supplied with a handle for the future conquest of Wales; their old and infirm prince Llewellyn, having put himself under subjection and homage to king Henry III. But no capitulation could satisfy the ambition of Edward I. who resolved to annex Wales to the crown of England; and Llewellyn, prince of Wales, disdaining the subjection to which old Llewellyn had submitted, was opposed by the army of Edward, which penetrated as far as Flint, and taking possession of the Isle of Anglesey, drove the Welch to the mountains of Snowdon, and obliged them to submit to pay a tribute. The Welch, however, made several efforts under young Llewellyn; but at last, in 1285, he was killed in battle. He was succeeded by his brother David, the last independent prince of Wales, who, falling into Edward's hands through treachery, was by him most barbarously and unjustly hanged; and Edward, from that time, pretended that Wales was annexed to the crown of England. It was about this time, probably, that Edward perpetrated the inhuman massacre of the Welch bards. Perceiving that his cruelty was not sufficient to

complete his conquest, he sent his queen to be delivered in Caernarvon castle, that the Welch, having a prince born among themselves, might the more readily recognise his authority. This prince was the unhappy Edward II. and from him the title of prince of Wales has always since descended to the eldest sons of the English kings.

WALLACE, (William) and **BRUCE**, (Robert), were two distinguished heroes in Scottish history, who achieved the independence of their country in opposition to the unprincipled invasion of Edward I. and II. of England. Sir William Wallace was the son of a small landholder, who possessed the estate of Ellerslie, near Paisley. It is probable that he had not greatly exceeded the age of opening manhood at the time when his country was subdued by the English. Many of his first deeds of heroism, although imperfectly commemorated, in the rude and often doubtful tale of Henry, the blind minstrel, have unluckily been preserved by no records upon the evidence of which they might be received into the pages of authentic history. Within less than a year after the conquest of Edward, when the whole country seemed to have acquiesced in his fate, he undertook the desperate enterprise of breaking her fetters, and by the success of his enterprises, made himself known so advantageously to his countrymen, that he was joined by many who were desirous to partake of his renown; amongst the rest, by sir William Douglas, and some others of considerable rank. In May, 1297, he led his followers to attack Ormesby, the English justiciary, who was holding his court at Scone. Ormesby, with difficulty, made his escape into England, and the other officers followed his example. From the north-east, Wallace passed into the west, where his glory and hatred of the English, procured him many adherents, amongst others, Robert Bruce, the grandson of him who had been competitor with Baliol for the crown. King Edward was then abroad, carrying on war in Guienne: but Warrene, who had been left governor of Scotland, collecting an army of forty thousand men, and determined to re-establish his authority, sent them for-

ward, under the command of sir Henry Piercy and sir Robert Clifford. When the English army came up, many of the adherents of Wallace made submissions; but he himself, with his chosen followers, retired into the north. Finding his forces increasing, he laid siege to Dundee, which he relinquished on hearing of the approach of the English army to the Forth, and hastened to oppose their passage, which they attempted at the bridge of Stirling. The English, under Cressingham, first crossed the river, when Wallace attacked them, and put them to the sword or drove them into the stream. Those on the other side, burning their tents and leaving their baggage, fled to Berwick. Wallace having gained this victory, hastened back to Dundee, which now surrendered at his approach. He was then chosen regent by his followers, and all Scotland was cleared of the English. King Edward, returning from France, led a powerful army into Scotland, and advanced to Falkirk. Bruce was now serving in the Scottish army, and was not, as has been fabulously stated, in the army of Edward. Both armies engaged at Falkirk, July 22, 1298, and the English gained the victory from their superiority of numbers and military skill, and the dissensions of their opponents. Wallace, seeing all hope lost, rallied the broken remnants of his forces, and retreated beyond the Forth. All Scotland submitted to Edward; but the dauntless spirit of Wallace never would surrender his country's independence. Whether he went abroad for a short time to France, or wandered in the fastnesses of the Highlands, cannot be certainly known; but in 1304 he was in Scotland, and Edward could never believe he had secure possession till Wallace was in his power. This was effected by the treachery of sir John Monteith, when Wallace was conducted to London, arraigned, and tried as a traitor, and condemned, as guilty of high treason against Edward, although he had never acknowledged him as his king, nor owed him allegiance. Wallace, still undaunted, during and after his trial, asserted the rights of his country, and bore his fate, which was inflicted with every circumstance of ignominy and cruelty, with the magna-

minity with which he had lived. His head was placed on London-bridge, and his mangled limbs were distributed over the kingdom. It was reserved for Robert Bruce to accomplish what Wallace had so nobly attempted. In his youth he had acted upon apparently no regular plan; and although he had at times served against Edward, when the Scottish forces were able to make a successful resistance, he soon made submissions after their defeat, and thus avoided drawing down upon himself the implacable resentment of Edward. He appeared to have stifled his pretensions to the crown; but immediately after the death of Wallace he determined at once to assert his own rights and his country's independence. Arriving at Dumfries, from England, in February, 1306, he had a quarrel with Comyn, of Badenoch, and stabbed him in the church of the Minorites, because he opposed his views. He now claimed the crown; and resentment of the treachery of Edward, and of the death of Wallace, procured him numerous followers. He was accordingly crowned king of Scotland, at Scone, on the 25th of March, the same year. An army, sent by king Edward, soon arrived at Perth; and in a battle fought on the 19th of June, Bruce was defeated. He took refuge at Aberdeen, and afterwards went towards Argyle, and was so hard pressed by the English and their adherents, that he retired to the island of Rachrin, in the north of Ireland, and was supposed to be dead; but early in the next spring he again displayed his banner in the west of Scotland, and gained many advantages over the English, of which, the victory at Loudon-hill was the most remarkable; whilst his brother, sir Edward, and sir James Douglas, were equally active and successful. Bruce came north in the end of the same year, and on account of the unfavourable state of his health, which had been injured by unceasing hardships and privations, he remained some time inactive. On the 22d of May, 1306, he gained the battle of Inverury, over the earl of Buchan and sir John Mowbray, which was the commencement of a career of success, which established him as king of Scotland. The whole of the fortresses of the kingdom were

recovered, excepting Stirling, which was beleaguered by his brother Edward, who entered into a treaty with the governor, by which it was agreed that it should be surrendered if not relieved before the 24th of June, 1314. This led to the attempt of Edward II. to relieve it by a powerful army, and brought on the battle of Bannockburn. Bruce's army consisted of thirty thousand veterans, distinguished by their valour, the skill of their leaders, and animated by every motive which can promote heroic enterprise. He drew them up with a hill on his right flank, and a morass on his left, to prevent being surrounded by the numerous army of Edward. Having a rivulet in front, he commanded deep pits to be dug along its banks, and sharp stakes to be planted in them, and caused the whole to be carefully covered with turf. The English arrived in the evening, when Bruce was riding in the front of his army. Sir Henry Bohun, who rode up to charge him with his spear, was brought to the ground by his battle-axe. Early next morning the action commenced. Sir Robert Keith, at the head of the men at arms, destroyed the English archers. The English horse, under the earl of Gloucester, rushing on to the charge, fell into the pits Bruce had prepared for them. Sir James Douglas, who commanded the Scottish cavalry, gave them no time to rally, but pushed them off the field. Whilst the infantry continued the fight, discouraged by these unfavourable events, they were thrown into a panic by the appearance of what they supposed another army advancing to surround them. This was a number of waggoners and sumpter boys, whom king Robert had collected and supplied with military standards, which gave them the appearance of an army at a distance. The stratagem was decisive, and an universal rout and immense slaughter ensued. This great and decisive battle secured the independence of Scotland, and fixed Bruce on the throne. He afterwards invaded England, and laid waste the northern counties. He also led an expedition into Ireland, in support of his brother Edward, who had been crowned king of that country, in the course of which he gained several victories. Peace was at last

concluded between England and Scotland, at Northampton, in 1328, and on the 7th of June, 1389, king Robert died, in the fifty-fifth year of his age, and was buried at Dunfermline, where his tomb has lately been discovered. His heroic enterprises have been celebrated by Barbour, who wrote his poetical history in 1375, and have recently been the subject of one of the poems of sir Walter Scott. His grand-daughter was the wife of Robert the Second, the first king of the house of Stuart, and from the issue of that marriage the present royal family is descended.

WALLER, (sir William,) a parliamentary general, was born in Kent, in 1597. On leaving Oxford, he went into the military service abroad, and, at his return, received the honour of knighthood. In the long parliament he distinguished himself as an opponent of the court; and he also obtained a command under the earl of Essex, but, after gaining some advantages, he was defeated, upon which he was laid aside. At the restoration, he was chosen one of the representatives for Middlesex. He died in 1669.

WALPOLE, (Robert,) earl of Orford, was born in 1676. In 1700 he married the daughter of sir John Shorter, and soon after became member for Castle Rising; but in 1702 he was chosen for King's Lynn, which he represented in several parliaments. In 1706 he was made secretary at war, and the year following treasurer of the navy. He was one of the managers of the trial of Sacheverel; but on the change of ministry, was committed to the Tower, and expelled the house, for breach of trust and corruption. The borough of Lynn, however, re-elected him, and he took an active part against ministers during the remainder of queen Anne's reign. Early in that of George I. he became prime minister, but some difference arising between him and his colleagues, he resigned, and joined the opposition. In 1720, he accepted the paymastership of the forces, and not long after was appointed first lord of the treasury, and chancellor of the exchequer. In 1723, he was sworn sole secretary of state. In 1725, he received the Order of the Bath; and the year following that of the Garter.

He continued in power, though assailed by powerful enemies, till 1742, when he resigned, and was created earl of Orford. He died in 1745. His brother, Horatio Walpole, lord Walpole, was born in 1678. He filled several offices under government, and in 1756, was created a peer, but died the year following.

WALSINGHAM, (Sir Francis) a statesman, was born in 1536, at Chilshurst, in Kent. In 1573, he was appointed one of the secretaries of state, and knighted. In 1583 he went on an embassy to James, king of Scotland, and three years afterwards sat as one of the commissioners on the trial of that monarch's unfortunate mother. Sir Francis was next made chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster; and he was also honoured with the Order of the Garter. But with all these distinctions and services he died poor, April 6, 1590, and was buried in St. Paul's Cathedral.

WALSTEIN, (Albert,) duke of Friedland, was born in Bohemia, in 1584. When the troubles broke out in his native country, he obtained the command of an army, with which he ravaged several provinces, defeated Mansfeldt, and made himself master of all the country between the ocean, the Baltic, and the Elbe. He drove out the king of Denmark from Pomerania, and took possession of the duchy of Mecklenburg, which title was granted to him by the emperor. Upon this, Gustavus Adolphus entered Germany, and fought the battle of Lutzen, Nov. 16, 1632, when Walstein was defeated, though the victor was slain. After this, Walstein being suspected of aiming at the sovereignty, was degraded; on which he retired to Egro, where he was murdered by three of his officers, in 1634.

WALTER of Brienne, surnamed the Great, by John his uncle, who restored to him the county of Brienne. After this he went into the Holy Land, and was made count of Joppa. He signalized his courage upon several important occasions, against the Saracens, by whom he was at length taken prisoner, in 1244, and put to a most cruel death in 1261.

WARS OF MODERN NATIONS:
Wars of England with Scotland, 1068, closed, 1091.—Peace with France, 1113.—War with France, 1116, closed,

HISTORY.

1118.—Peace with France, 1118.—Peace with Scotland, 1139.—War with France, 1161.—Peace with France, 1186.—War again with France, with success, 1194.—Peace with France, 1195.—War with France, 1201.—War, civil, renewed, 1215.—War ended, 1216.—War with France, 1224.—War ended, 1243.—War, civil, 1262.—War, civil, ended, 1267.—War with France, 1294.—War with Scotland, 1296.—Peace with France, 1299.—Peace with Scotland, March 30, 1323.—War again with Scotland, 1327.—War ended, 1328.—War again with Scotland, 1333.—War with France, 1339.—Peace with France, May 8, 1360.—War with France, 1368.—War, civil, 1400.—War with Scotland, 1400.—Peace with France, May 31, 1420.—War with France, 1422.—War, civil, between York and Lancaster, 1452.—Peace with France, October, 1471.—War, civil, 1486.—War with France, October 6, 1492.—Peace with France, November 3, following.—Peace with Scotland, 1502.—War with France, February 4, 1512.—War with Scotland, 1513.—Peace with France, August 7, 1514.—War with France, 1522.—War with Scotland, 1522.—Peace with France, 1527.—Peace with Scotland, 1542.—War with Scotland directly after.—Peace with France and Scotland, June 7, 1546.—War with Scotland, 1547.—War with France, 1549.—Peace with both, March 6, 1550.—War, civil, 1553.—War with Scotland, June 7, 1557.—War with France, 1557.—Peace with France, April 2, 1559.—Peace with Scotland, 1560.—War with France, 1562.—Peace with France, 1564.—War with Scotland, 1570.—War with Spain, 1588.—Peace with Spain, August 18, 1604.—War with Spain, 1624.—War with France, 1627.—Peace with Spain and France, April 14, 1629.—War, civil, 1642.—War with the Dutch, 1651.—Peace with the Dutch, April 5, 1654.—War with Spain, 1655.—Peace with Spain, September 10, 1660.—War with France, January 26, 1666.—War with Denmark, October 19, following.—Peace with the French, Danes, and Dutch, August 24, 1667.—Peace with Spain, February 13, 1668.—War with the Algerines, September 6, 1669.—Peace with the Algerines, November 19, 1671.—War with the Dutch, March 1672.—Peace with the Dutch, February 28, 1674.—War with France, May 7, 1679.—Peace, general, September 20, 1699.—War with France, May 4, 1702.—Peace of Utrecht, July 13, 1713.—War with Spain, December, 1718.—Peace with Spain, 1721.—War with Spain, October 19, 1739.—War with France, March 31, 1744.—Peace with France, &c. October 18, 1748.—War with France, 1756.—War with Spain, January 4, 1762.—Peace with France and Spain, February 10, 1763.—Peace between Russia and the Turks, 1773.—War, civil, in America, commenced June 14, 1774.—War with France, February 6, 1778.—War with Spain, April 17, 1780.—War with Holland, December 21, 1790.—Peace with France, Spain, Holland, and America 1783.—War with France, 1793, by the English, Prussians, Austrians, Sardinians, and Italian States.—Peace between Prussia and France, 1796.—Peace between France and Spain, 1796.—Peace between France and Naples, 1796.—Peace between the French and Sardinians, 1796.—War between England and Spain, November 11, 1796.—War between France Naples, and Sardinia, November, 1796.—Peace between Austria and France, February 9, 1801.—War between Spain and Portugal, February 28 1801.—Peace between Naples and France, March, 1801.—Peace between Portugal and Spain, June 10, 1801.—Peace between France and Portugal, September 29, 1801.—Peace between France and the Porte, October 17, 1801.—Peace between England, France, Spain, and Holland, March 27, 1802.—War between England and France, April 29, 1803.—War between England and Spain, December 14, 1804.—War between France, Russia, and Austria, September, 1805.—Peace between France and Austria, December 27, 1805.—War between Sweden and France, October 31, 1805.—War between England and Prussia, April, 1806.—War between Prussia and France, October, 1806.—Peace between France and the elector of Saxony, December 11, 1806.—Peace between England and Prussia, January 28, 1807.—Peace between France and Russia, July 19, 1807.—War between England and Denmark, November 4, 1807.—War between Russia and Sweden, February 10, 1808.—War between Denmark and Sweden, February 28,

WAR

1603.—War between Prussia and Sweden, March 6, 1808.—War between Spain and France, June 6, 1808.—Peace between England and Spain, June 6, 1808.—Peace between Sweden and Russia, September 17, 1809.—Peace between France and Austria, October 15, 1809.—Peace between France and Sweden, January 6, 1810.—Peace between England and Russia, August 1, 1812.—Peace between England and Sweden, August 4—17; 1812.—War between England and America, June 18, 1812.—War between Sweden and Denmark, September 13, 1813.—Peace between Sweden and Denmark, January 14, 1814.—Peace between France and the allies, (England, Russia, and Prussia) May 30, 1814.—Peace between France and Spain, July 20, 1814.—Peace between England and America, December 24, 1814.—Peace between Saxony and Prussia, May 18, 1815.

WARS OF AUSTRIA.—1. The war with the Ottoman Porte, from 1592 to 1606, terminated by the peace at Sighvarock, in Hungary, on the 21st of October, 1606.—2. The war, commonly called the thirty years' war, which lasted from 1618 until 1648, terminated by the peace concluded on the 14th of October, 1648, at Munster, in Westphalia.—3. The war respecting the Mantuan succession, which lasted from 1629 to 1631, terminated with France by a treaty of peace at Ratisbon, on the 13th of October, 1630, and with Spain, by arrangements made on the 6th of April, 1631, at Oherasoo, in Piedmont.—4. The second war with the Ottoman Porte, which lasted from 1661 until 1664, terminated for 20 years by the peace of Vasvar, in Hungary, on the 10th of August, 1664.—5. War with France, from 1672 to 1678, terminated by the peace at Nimueguen, in Holland, on the 5th of February, 1679.—6. Third war with the Ottoman Porte, from 1683 to 1699, terminated by the peace of Carlowitz, in Sclavonia, on the 26th of January, 1699.—7. Second war with France, from 1688 to 1697, terminated by the peace of Ryswick, in Holland, on the 30th of October, 1697.—8. War with France and Spain, from 1701 to 1713, terminated by the peace of Rastadt, in the empire, on the 6th of March, 1714.—9. Fourth war with the Ottoman Porte, from 1716 to

1718, terminated by the peace of Passarowitz, in Servia, on the 21st of July, 1718.—10. Second war with Spain, respecting the possessions in Italy, from 1717 to 1720, terminated by the peace of Vienna, in Austria, on the 30th of April, 1725.—11. War with France and Spain, from 1733 to 1739, terminated with France by the peace of Vienna, in Austria, on the 3d of October, 1738, and with Spain, by the peace at Versailles, on the 20th of April, 1739.—12. Fifth war with the Ottoman Porte, from 1737 to 1739, terminated by the peace of Belgrade, in Servia, on the 18th of September, 1739.—13. War of Austrian succession at the death of the emperor Charles VI., from 1740 to 1748; it lasted with Prussia, (for the first time) from 1740 until 1742, and was terminated by peace made at Breslaw and Berlin, on the 11th of June, and 28th July, 1742; it lasted with Bavaria, from 1741 to 1745, and was terminated by peace made at Fussen, in Suabia, on the 22d of April, 1745. It lasted with France and Spain together, from 1741 to 1748, and was terminated by peace made at Aix-la-Chapelle, on the 18th of October, 1748. Lastly, it was again carried on with Prussia, (for the second time) from 1744 to 1745, and was terminated by peace concluded at Dresden, on the 25th of December, 1745.—14. The seven years' war, or third war with Prussia, from 1756 to 1763, terminated by the peace of Hubertsburg, in Saxony, on the 15th of February, 1763.—15. Fourth war with Prussia, respecting the Bavarian succession, from 1778 to 1779, terminated by the peace of Teschen, in Upper Silesia, on the 13th of May, 1779.—16. Different wars with the States-General of Holland, from 1784 to 1785, respecting the opening of the Scheldt, terminated by the treaty of Fontainebleau, on the 8th of November, 1785.—17. Sixth war with the Ottoman Porte, from 1788 until the armistice of 1790, stipulated by the congress at Rerehenbaeh, in Silesia, and terminated by peace made at Sistova, on the 4th of August, 1791.—18. War with France, from 1792 to 1797, terminated by peace at Leoban, in Upper Styria, on the 17th April, 1797.—19. War with France, March, 1799, terminated by the peace of Luneville, February 9, 1801.—20. War with France,

HISTORY.

1806, terminated in the same year.—
21. War with France, 1814, terminated
May 30, same year.

WARS BETWEEN ENGLAND AND FRANCE.—1116, lasted 25 years; 1141, one year; 1201, 15; 1224, 19; 1294, five; 1339, 21; 1368, 52; 1422, 49; 1492, one month; 1512, two years; 1521, six; 1549, one; 1557, two; 1562, two; 1627, two; 1666, one; 1699, 10; 1702, 11; 1744, four; 1756, seven; 1778, five; 1793, which terminated March 27, 1802; 1803, which terminated May, 1814.

WARRECK, (Peter), a renegade Jew of Tournay, who was persuaded to personate the duke of York, in the reign of Henry VII. His cause was warmly espoused by several men of rank, all of whom were arraigned and tried for high treason, and three were executed. His followers, at one period, amounted to 7000; but after a series of disastrous adventures, he was induced by Henry to surrender himself, and confess the whole of the imposture, on promise of pardon. After attempting once or twice to escape from custody, he was hanged at Tyburn, and several of his adherents suffered the same ignominious death.

WARRE, an inland town of the Netherlands, in South Brabant. On 18th June, 1815, marshal Grouchy, at the head of 34,000 men, was engaged here by a body of the Prussians, in place of marching to join the French army at the battle of Waterloo.

WARSAW, a large city, the capital of the whole of Poland. In the war with the Swedes, in the middle of the seventeenth century, Warsaw was occupied by these invaders, who made it the depot of their spoils. When Charles XII. advanced, at a subsequent period, to Warsaw, it surrendered to him without opposition. It was defended by Kosciuszko against the Prussians, in 1794, who were obliged to raise the siege. Warsaw at length submitted to Suwarrow and the Russians. On the final partition of Poland, in 1795, this part of the country fell to the share of Prussia, and Warsaw had no other rank than that of capital of a province, until the end of 1806, when the overthrow of the power of Prussia led to the formation, by Bonaparte, of the independent state, called the Duchy of Warsaw. It is now the residence of a viceroy, representing the emperor

of Russia; also the place of meeting of the Polish parliament.

WARWICK, (earl of) known by the appellation of the *king-maker*, was one of the most celebrated generals of his age. He put himself at the head of the Yorkists, and gave battle to the Lancasterians at St. Albans, in which he was defeated, in 1461. He afterwards harangued the citizens of London, assembled in St. John's Fields, setting forth the title of Edward, the eldest son of the duke of York, and inveighing against the tyranny and usurpation of the house of Lancaster. After the decisive battle of Tewton, and Edward was safely fixed on the throne, Warwick advised him to marry, and with his consent went over to France, to procure Bona of Savoy as queen. But while the earl was hastening the negotiation in France, the king married Elizabeth Woodville. Having thus given Warwick real cause of offence, he widened the breach, by driving him from the council. Warwick, whose prudence was equal to his bravery, soon made use of both to assist his revenge; and formed such a combination against Edward, that he was, in turn, obliged to fly the kingdom, and king Henry was released from prison, to be placed upon a dangerous throne. A parliament was called, which confirmed Henry's title, with great solemnity, and Warwick was himself received among the people, under the title of the *king-maker*. Edward, however, did not long remain abroad; and, having made a descent at Ravenspur, in Yorkshire, he proceeded with an increasing army towards London. Nothing now, therefore, remained to Warwick, but to cut short a state of anxious suspense, by hazarding a battle. Edward's fortune prevailed. They met at Barnet, and the Lancasterians were defeated, while Warwick himself, leading a chosen body of troops into the thickest of the fight, fell in the midst of his enemies, covered with wounds.

WASHINGTON, (George), an American general, and the first president of the United States; was born in Virginia, Feb. 11, 1732. At the age of twenty, he was a major in the colonial militia, and in 1755 he served under the unfortunate General Braddock, on whose fall, he conducted the retreat in a masterly manner. After this he

led a retired life till 1774, when he was elected to the congress as a delegate from Virginia. Soon after this he was appointed to the command of the American army, and he continued in that important station till the termination of the war, and the recognition of the independence of the new republic, of which he was chosen the first president. In 1789 he was re-elected to that office, which he resigned in 1796, and on that occasion published a valedictory address to his countrymen. He lived in retirement till July, 1798, when the conduct of the revolutionary government in France having compelled the United States to arm in their own defence, Washington was called from his retreat to take the military command. While holding this appointment, he was cut off by an inflammation in his throat, Dec. 14, 1799.

WATERLOO, battle of, by French writers called Mont St. Jean, near which village it was fought in the spring of 1815. The European confederates having outlawed Napoleon by a declaration at Vienna, assembled their forces to invade France by the east and north. A Prussian army of 60,000 was collected near Charleroi, under Blucher, and an English, Hanoverian, Dutch, and Flemish army of 100,000, under Wellington, in advance of Brussels. On the 13th of June, the French army of 110,000 men, under Napoleon, debouched from Givet and Charleroi, attacked the Prussians at Ligny, and drove them back with great slaughter, making from ten to fifteen thousand prisoners. In the meantime the left wing of the French army on the 15th, attacked the English position at Quatre Bras, cut to pieces some Scotch regiments, and compelled the remainder of the allies to retreat on Brussels. Marshal Wellington now assembled all his forces in the strong position of Waterloo, the right of which was defended by the chateau of Hougomont; the left and centre by acclivities of ground, and his rear protected by the immense forest of Soligny. After the affair of Ligny, Napoleon divided his force into two divisions, sending his right wing, of 30,000 men, under Grouchy, in pursuit of the Prussians, who made a stand at Warre; while with the left and centre he followed the Eng-

lish in the direction of Waterloo and Brussels, and finding Wellington in position at Mont St. Jean, he bivouacked on the 17th on the grounds on the other side of the valley, while the English and allies were preparing for attack on the opposite side. At noon on the 18th, the French commenced their attack on the chateau of Hougomont, and endeavoured by that position to gain the heights, and turn the right of the English army; and here a scene of bloody contest was maintained for some hours, in which many thousands of the combatants lost their lives. Another attack was commenced in the centre in the bottom, beneath which is situated a farm called *La Haye Sainte*. Here likewise a dreadful slaughter took place, chiefly of Hanoverians, and the French carried the position. In the right the French ascended the acclivity, and advanced on the plain, but were checked by a charge, in which Sir Thomas Picton was killed. On their left they advanced from Hougomont, within half a mile of the village of Mont St. Jean, but were here arrested by other charges, in which the prince of Orange was wounded. The enthusiastic courage of the French was every where opposed by the cool resolution of the English regiments, who formed themselves into squares, and received and repelled the attacks of the French cavalry. In this position the two armies remained, with various local success, till about four in the afternoon, when a body of Prussians under marshal Bulow approached from Warre, and secured the English position on the left. At six in the evening the issue remained doubtful; the French considered the victory as their own, and an Hanoverian regiment actually fled from the field, and passed through Brussels. But marshal Wellington, assured of the speedy approach of marshal Blucher with a body of Prussian cavalry on the French right flank, maintained his principal position with inflexible determination; and about eight o'clock the Prussian cavalry, under Blucher, debouched from the woods on the left, overthrew and captured the French right wing, and advanced along the valley, and passed the centre of the French position, carrying all before them. The French on the heights

HISTORY.

and on their left wing, perceiving themselves thus surrounded, were seized with a general panic, a cry of *sauve qui peut* ran through their ranks; the confusion was increased by a general charge of the British, and they fled in complete rout towards the French frontiers, leaving all their cannon and materiel in the hands of the victors. The loss of killed and wounded on both sides has been variously computed, but it cannot have been less than 60,000. This battle was followed by the most important political consequences. The main French army was thus dispersed without cannon and without materiel. Grouchy, who, with his division, remained immovable during the battle at Warre, about nine miles distant, on hearing of its result, retreated towards Paris, and Napoleon, to diminish the effects of his disaster, repaired instantly to the same city, where the intrigues and conflicts of parties determined him to resign the crown in favour of his son and embark for America. In the meantime, the Prussians advanced briskly in pursuit of the disordered French, and marshal Wellington having disposed of his wounded, followed without interruption to the walls of Paris, where, after some negotiation, the Bourbons were restored.

WEST POINT, a post village, and military post of the United States, in Orange County, New York. This was of great consequence in the first American war, especially with respect to the communication between the northern and the middle colonies; and the possession was very desirable to the British general, who entered into a treaty with general Arnold, the commander, to betray it. The adjutant-general of the British army, major Andre, was employed by sir Henry Clinton, as the agent on this business, and being discovered, was executed as a spy.

WEYMOUTH, a sea-port, borough and market town of Dorsetshire. In the year 1471, Margaret of Anjou, with her son prince Edward, landed here from France, in order to restore her husband to the throne. Thirty-six years afterwards, king Philip of Castile, with his queen, were driven on this coast, and having run into the port, were detained by sir Thomas Trenchard, till an interview took

place between the English and Spanish monarchs, from which the former derived some advantages. During the civil wars it was alternately garrisoned by the king and parliament. It was evacuated by the royalists in 1644, and it afterwards sustained a siege of eighteen days from the same party, in their endeavours to retake it.

WHITELOCKE, (general) was entrusted with the command of the British forces in South America in 1807. He foolishly ordered his men to capture the town of Buenos Ayres, by entering it with unloaded muskets, which order occasioned the loss of 2,500 men. Soon after, Whitelocke acceded to the terms of a treaty, in which it was stipulated that he should evacuate the country, and deliver up the well garrisoned and impregnable fortress of Montevideo, in exchange for the surrender of prisoners. On his return to England, he was tried by court-martial, cashiered, and declared totally unfit and unworthy to serve his majesty in any military capacity whatever.

WICKLIFFE, or **WYCLIFFE** (John), the "Morning Star of the Reformation," was born at a village of the same name, in Yorkshire, in 1324. He was nominated one of the king's commissioners, to require of the pope that he would not interfere in ecclesiastical benefices. This treaty was carried on at Bruges; but nothing was concluded, upon which the parliament passed an act against the papal usurpations. This encouraged Wickliffe to go on in exposing the tyranny of the pope, who, in 1377, denounced the reformer as a heretic, and required the archbishop of Canterbury and the bishop of London, to proceed in judgment upon him. Wickliffe, however, was supported by the duke of Lancaster and earl Percy who appeared with him at St. Paul's, Feb. 19, 1378. High words ensued on that occasion between the bishop of London and the temporal lords; in consequence of which, the populace took the bishop's part, and plundered the duke's house in the Savoy. Wickliffe, being thus countenanced at court, undertook a translation of the Scriptures into English, which work he accomplished, and thereby increased the number of his enemies. Of this version, which was made from the

Vulgate, several copies are extant ; but only the New Testament has been yet printed. In 1381 Wickliffe ventured to attack the doctrine of transubstantiation, in a piece entitled "De Blasphemia," which being condemned at Oxford, he went thither and made a declaration of his faith, and professing his resolution to defend it with his blood. The marriage of the king with Anne of Luxemburg, proved very advantageous to Wickliffe ; for she was a most exemplary princess, and a great friend to scriptural knowledge. By her means, the writings of the English reformer, were sent to Germany, where they afterwards produced an abundant harvest. On leaving Oxford, Wickliffe received a citation from the pope to appear at Rome ; but he answered, that "Christ had taught him to obey God rather than man." He died of the palsy, at Lut-terworth, in 1384.

WILKES (John), a political character, was born in Clerkenwell, where his father was a distiller, in 1727. He obtained the rank of colonel of the Buckinghamshire militia, and a seat in parliament for Aylesbury ; but, on publishing a virulent paper called the "North Briton, he was expelled the House of Commons ; and convicted in the court of King's Bench. Previous to this, however, he had gained a verdict in the Common Pleas against the secretary of state, for an illegal seizure of his papers by a general warrant. In the meantime, Wilke sinned another prosecution for printing an obscene poem, called an "Essay on Woman ;" and for not appearing to receive judgment, was outlawed. He then went to France, where he resided till 1768, when he was elected for Middlesex ; but was prevented from taking his seat, and committed to the King's Bench prison, which occasioned dreadful riots in St. George's Fields. Upon this, Wilkes published another libel, for which he was again expelled the House of Commons ; but was re-chosen, and the election as repeatedly declared void. His popularity was now at its height, and a large subscription was made for the payment of his debts. In 1770 he was chosen an alderman of London, and in 1774 lord mayor. The same year he was returned again for Middlesex, when he

was permitted to take his seat without farther opposition. In 1779, after three unsuccessful attempts, he was elected chamberlain of London. He died, Dec. 26, 1797.

WILLIAM I., duke of Normandy, a descendant of Canute, was born 1027. In 1051 he paid a visit to Edward the Confessor, in England, and in 1066 he betrothed his daughter to Harold II. In 1066 he made a claim to the crown of England, invaded England, landed at Pevensey, in Sussex, defeated the English troops at Hastings, on October 14, when Harold was slain, and William assumed the title of Conqueror. He was crowned at Westminster, December 29, 1066. In 1072 he repelled the attack of Malcolm, king of Scotland, in Northumberland. In 1079 he was wounded by his son Robert, at Gerberot, in Normandy, and in 1086 he invaded France. He soon after fell from his horse, and contracted a rupture : he died at Hermentrude, near Rouen, in Normandy, 1087. He was buried at Caen, and succeeded in Normandy by his eldest son, Robert, and in England by his second son.

WILLIAM II. was born 1057, and crowned at Westminster, September 27, 1087. In 1090 he invaded Normandy with success. William was killed by accident, while hunting in the New Forest, in 1100.—(See *Tyrrill*.)

WILLIAM III., prince of Orange, landed at Torbay, Nov. 4, 1688, the epoch of the English revolution. He was crowned with his consort Mary, Feb. 16, 1689. William, being a Presbyterian, began his reign by repealing those laws that enjoined uniformity of worship ; and though he could not entirely succeed, a toleration was granted to such dissenters as should take the oaths of allegiance, and hold no private conventicles. In the meantime, James, whose authority was still acknowledged in Ireland, embarked at Brest for that country, and arrived at Kinsale. He soon made a public entry into Dublin, and was well received. After the unsuccessful siege of Londonderry, his army encountered the royal forces, commanded by William in person, on the banks of the Boyne, in 1690, when the latter gained a splendid victory. At length, after a series of disasters, James died

HISTORY.

Sept. 16, 1700. William, in the mean-
time, became fatigued with opposing
the laws which parliament were every
day laying round his authority, and
thus gave up the contest. He admit-
ted every restraint upon the preroga-
tive in England, upon condition of
being properly supplied with the
means of humbling the power of
France. For the prosecution of the
war with France, the nation mort-
gaged the taxes, and involved them-
selves in what is now called the na-
tional debt. England received in re-
turn, the empty reward of military
glory in Flanders, and the conscious-
ness of having given their allies, par-
ticularly the Dutch, frequent opportu-
nities of being ungrateful. The war
with France continued during the
greatest part of William's reign, but
was at length concluded by the treaty
of Rhyswic, in 1697. William was
thrown from his horse, Feb. 21, 1702,
when his collar-bone was fractured;
and this hastened his dissolution. He
died in the following month, of an
asthma and fever, in the 13th year of
his reign.

WILLIAMS (sir Roger), a gallant
officer, was born in Monmouthshire,
and educated at Oxford. On leaving
the university, he served as a volun-
teer under the duke of Alva; and, in
1581, was with general Norris in
Flanders, where he distinguished him-
self in many actions. He died in
1595.

WILLIAMSON (sir Joseph), a
statesman, was born about 1630, at
Bridekirk in Cumberland, of which
parish his father was vicar. After
the Restoration, he became one of the
clerks of the council, and was knight-
ed. He was also one of the plenipo-
tentiaries at the treaty of Cologne,
and at his return was created doctor
of laws. In 1674, he became principal
secretary of state; but in 1678,
the house of commons sent him to the
Tower, for granting commissions to
popish recusants. The king, however,
released him the same day; and sir
Joseph resigned his place soon after.
The same year he married lady Clit-
ton, who brought him a large estate.
He died in 1701.

WILLIAMS (John), a prelate and
statesman, was born at Aberconway in
Caernarvonshire, March 25, 1582. In
1621, he was made bishop of Lincoln

and keeper of the great seal, which last
situation he filled to the satisfaction
of James I., whose funeral sermon he
preached; but soon after he was dis-
missed from his post. He was also
prosecuted in the star-chamber, on a
charge of betraying the king's secrets,
for which he was heavily fined, sus-
pended from his dignities, and con-
fined in the Tower above three years.
On the meeting of the long parliament,
he obtained his release; and when
the earl of Strafford was impeached,
he delivered it, as his opinion, that
the bishops ought not to be present in
the house of peers on such an occa-
sion, by which means the bill of at-
tainder passed; and lord Clarendon
says, that it was through his advice
the king gave his assent to that fatal
measure. In 1641, he was translated
to York; but soon after he, and
eleven of his brethren, were sent to
the Tower, for protesting against all
acts passed while they were prevented
by the mob from attending in their
places. In the rebellion, the archb-
shop fortified Conway Castle for the
king; but being unable to stem the
torrent which overwhelmed the church
and state, he devoted the remainder
of his days to religious exercises, and
died in Wales, March 25, 1650.

WILLIAMSTADT, a town of the
Netherlands in North Brabant. It is
strongly fortified, and was besieged
by the French in 1793, but without
success.

WINCESLAUS, emperor of Ger-
many, succeeded Charles IV. in 1379.
During his reign the empire was dis-
tracted by party feuds and public in-
surrections. Among other atrocities,
he ordered his consort's confessor to
be drowned, caused his cook to be
roasted alive for having ill prepared
a dish of meat, and sentenced all the
magistrates of the chief tribunal at
Prague to be decapitated in one day,
without a trial. In 1396, he was
twice thrown into prison, and twice
restored; but in a fit of rage, he one
day pulled a servant to the ground by
the hair of his head, and soon after
fell down in a fit, and expired in his
57th year, in 1400.

WINDHAM (William), a states-
man, was the son of colonel Wind-
ham of Felbrigg in Norfolk, and born
in 1750. In 1782, he went to Ireland
as secretary to the lord-lieutenant;

but quitted that kingdom in a few months. Till the French revolution, he acted with the opposition; but in 1794, he joined Mr. Pitt, and was appointed secretary at war, which office he held till 1801, when he vigorously opposed the peace. On the death of Mr. Pitt, Mr. Windham became secretary of state for the war department, but went out of place again the following year. His death, which happened June 4, 1810, was occasioned by a contusion of the hip in a fall, while exerting himself to save the library of Mr. North, during a fire in Conduit-street.

WIRTEMBERG, a state in the south-west of Germany. In the wars of the French revolution, Wirtemberg was repeatedly traversed by the hostile armies; its territory was, in 1796, the ground chosen for conflicts in the advance, as well as in the celebrated retreat of Moreau. In 1799, it was the scene of the defeat of the French under Jourdan; in 1800, of their renewed success under Moreau.

WOLFE, (James) was the son of Lieutenant-general Edward Wolfe, born at Westerham, in Kent, in 1725. He entered early into the army, and before he was twenty, distinguished himself at the battle of Lafeldt. At that of Minden, he gained additional laurels as lieutenant-colonel of Kingsley's regiment, as he afterwards did at Louisbourg, from whence he had but just returned, when he was appointed to command the expedition against Quebec. The enterprise was hazardous, but general Wolfe surmounted all obstacles, and on the heights of Abraham encountered the enemy; when, in the moment of victory, he received a ball in the wrist and another in the body, which obliged him to be carried into the rear. In his last agonies he was roused by the shout, "They run!" on which he eagerly asked, "Who run?" and being told the French, he said, "I thank God: I die contented," and expired Sept. 13. 1759.

WOLSEY, (Thomas) a cardinal and statesman, was born in 1471 at Ipswich, where his father was a butcher. In 1508, being then chaplain to Henry VII. he was made dean of Lincoln; and in the next reign he gained an absolute ascendancy over the young monarch by flattering his

passions and sharing in his amusements. He was accordingly made almoner to the king, a privy councillor, canon of Windsor, registrar of the garter, and dean of York. Soon after this accumulation of honours, he was appointed chancellor of the garter, and rewarded with a grant of the revenues of the bishopric of Tournay in Flanders. In 1514 he was consecrated bishop of Lincoln, and within a few months afterwards was elevated to the see of York and the dignity of a cardinal. In 1516 he was appointed legate with the fullest powers, and at the same time was made lord chancellor. In 1519 he obtained the temporalities of the see of Bath and Wells, to which were added those of Worcester and Hereford, with the rich abbey of St. Alban's. Wolsey now aspired to the papacy, and on being disappointed of it, received, as a compensation from the emperor, a pension of nine thousand crowns of gold, while his own sovereign gave him the bishopric of Durham. On the death of Adrian VI. he made another effort to gain the tiara, but without success. In 1528 he exchanged Durham for Winchester; but a cloud now arose, occasioned by the king's dissatisfaction with his conduct in the business of the divorce. Accordingly while the cardinal sat in the court of chancery, an indictment was preferred against him in the king's bench, on the statute of provisors, in consequence of which the great seal was taken from him, all his goods were seized, and articles of impeachment were soon exhibited in parliament. The prosecution, however, was stayed, and he received the king's pardon; but while he was endeavouring to reconcile himself to his fallen state at Cawood castle, his capricious master, caused him to be arrested for high treason, and hurried from Yorkshire towards London. The agitation and fatigue brought on a disorder, of which he died at the abbey of Leicester, Nov. 28, 1530.

WORCESTER, the chief town of Worcestershire. This city suffered much during the wars between the houses of York and Lancaster; but the most remarkable event here was the famous battle between the English army under Cromwell, and the Scotch in the cause of Charles II. in 1650;

when the royalists had 3,000 killed and 8,000 taken prisoners, most of whom were sold as slaves to the American colonies.

WOTTON (sir Henry) a statesman, was born at Boughton-hall, in Kent, in 1568. He became secretary to the earl of Essex, on whose fall he went abroad, and while at Florence was honoured with the confidence of the grand duke; who sent him on a secret mission to James VI. of Scotland. When that monarch ascended the English throne, he conferred on him the honour of knighthood; and appointed him ambassador to the republic of Venice, where he contracted an intimacy with father Paul. After this he was sent to several other courts. He died in 1639.

WOTTON, (Nicholas) a statesman, was uncle to the preceding, and born in Kent, about 1497. During the reign of Henry VIII. he was employed on different embassies; and in that of Edward he was made secretary of state. In 1551, he went on a mission to the emperor of Germany; after which he became resident at the court of France. He died in London, in 1566; and was buried at Canterbury.

WURMSER, (Dagobert Sigismund, count) an Austrian general, was born in Alsace. In his youth he served in the French army, and next in that of the emperor, where he rose to the highest honours. In the revolutionary war he drove the republicans out of Alsace; but at last was obliged to retreat before superior numbers. In 1794, however, he took Mannheim; and in 1796, defeated the French in Italy. At last being obliged to throw himself into Mantua, he was obliged to capitulate. He died in Hungary in 1797, at the age of eighty.

WURTSCHEN, Battle of, May 21, 1813. The battle of Bautzen may be considered as the prelude to that of Wurtchen. Napoleon entered Dresden on the 8th May, and the king of Saxony returned to his capital, which had been occupied by the allies on the 12th following. On the 18th, Bonaparte left Dresden, and arrived before Bautzen on the 19th, at ten o'clock in the morning; after which he employed the remainder of the day in reconnoitring the position of the allies. At noon, on the 20th, a brisk

cannonade commenced in the neighbourhood of Bautzen, which lasted six hours; during which several charges were made by the allies without success: for general Compans took possession of Bautzen; and general Bonnet, by a running charge, took possession of a plain which rendered him master of the whole centre of the allied forces, and at seven in the evening they were driven back on their second position. The French emperor entered Bautzen, at night, about eight o'clock. On the 21st, Napoleon marched towards the heights, three quarters of a league in advance of Bautzen, at five o'clock in the morning. At eleven, the duke of Treviso advanced 1,000 toises from his position, and engaged in a dreadful cannonade before all the redoubts and entrenchments of the allies, and by the manoeuvres of the French they were kept in a state of uncertainty respecting the real point of attack. At length, the allies finding that the French had succeeded in turning their right, began to retreat, and this retreat soon became a flight; and at seven o'clock in the evening, the prince of Moskwa and general Lauriston arrived at Wurtschen. The allies being now forced from all their positions, left the French masters of the field of battle, who found it covered with dead and wounded they also took several thousand prisoners.

WYAT, (sir Thomas) a statesman, was born at Allington-castle, in Kent, in 1503. His father, sir Henry Wyat, was imprisoned in the Tower in the reign of Richard III., where he is said to have been preserved by a cat that fed him daily, for which reason all the portraits of him are painted with that animal in his arms or by his side. On the accession of Henry VII. he was knighted; and in the next reign made master of the Jewel-office. He died in 1533. His son Thomas became a great favourite with Henry VIII., and by one of his jests hastened on the reformation. The king having complained of the delay of the court of Rome in granting the divorce, sir Thomas exclaimed, "Lord! that a man cannot repent him of his sin without the pope's leave!" This witticism hastened the king's resolution, and he soon afterwards acted upon it as a

maxim of sound reason. Wyat, however, fell into some trouble afterwards by his freedom of speech, and was twice tried for sedition, but acquitted. He died at Sherbourne, in Dorsetshire, in 1541.

WYMONDHAM, or **WINDHAM**, a market town of Norfolk. It was the birth place of William Kett, who headed a rebellion during the reign of Edward VI.; but was finally defeated by the earl of Warwick, and hanged on the church steeple, in 1549.

WYNDHAM, (sir William), a statesman, was born at Orchard

Wyndham, in Somersetshire, in 1667. In 1710, he was made secretary at war; and in 1713, chancellor of the exchequer. On the accession of George I. he was dismissed from office; and when the rebellion broke out in Scotland, he was sent to the Tower, but never brought to trial. He continued to act in opposition till his death, which happened at Wells, in 1740; when he was succeeded in his title and estate by his eldest son, Charles Wyndham, who became earl of Egremont, and died in 1763.

X.

XANTIPPUS, a Lacedæmonian general who assisted the Carthaginians in the first Punic war. He defeated the Romans, 256, B.C. and took the celebrated Regulus prisoner. Such signal services deserved to be rewarded, but the Carthaginians looked with envious jealousy upon Xantippus, and he retired to Corinth after he had saved them from destruction. Some authors support that the Carthaginians ordered him to be assassinated, and his body to be thrown into the sea as he was returning home; while others say that they had prepared a leaky ship to convey him to Corinth, which he artfully avoided.

XANTIPPUS, an Athenian general who defeated the Persian fleet at Mycale with Leotychides. A statue was erected to his honour, at the citadel of Athens. He made some conquests in Thrace, and increased the power of Athens. He was father to the celebrated Pericles, by Agariste, the niece of Clisthenes, who expelled the Pisistratidæ from Athens.

XENOPHON, an Athenian, son of Gryllus, celebrated as a general, an historian, and a philosopher. He was invited by Proxenus, one of his intimate friends, to accompany Cyrus the younger in an expedition against his brother Artaxerxes, king of Persia; but he refused to comply without previously consulting his venerable master, and enquiring into the propriety of such a measure. Socrates strongly opposed it, and observed, that it might raise the resentment of his countrymen, as Sparta had made an alliance with the Persian monarch;

but, however, before he proceeded further, he advised him to consult the oracle of Apollo. Xenophon paid due deference to the injunctions of Socrates, but as he was ambitious of glory, and eager to engage in a distant expedition, he hastened with precipitation to Sardis, where he was introduced to the young prince, and treated with great attention. In the army of Cyrus, Xenophon shewed that he was a true disciple of Socrates, and that he had been educated in the warlike city of Athens. After the decisive battle in the plains of Cunaxa, and the fall of young Cyrus, the prudence and vigour of his mind were called into action. The ten thousand Greeks who had followed the standard of an ambitious prince, were now at the distance of above six hundred leagues from their native home, in a country surrounded on every side by a victorious enemy, without money, without provisions, and without a leader. Xenophon was selected from among the officers, to superintend the retreat of his countrymen, and though he was often opposed by malevolence and envy, yet his persuasive eloquence and his activity, convinced the Greeks that no general could extricate them from every difficulty, better than the disciple of Socrates. He rose superior to danger, and though under continual alarms from the sudden attacks of the Persians, he was enabled to cross rapid rivers, penetrate through vast deserts, gain the tops of mountains, till he could rest secure for a while, and refresh his tired companions. This celebrated retreat was,

HISTORY.

at last, happily effected, the Greeks returned home after a march of 1155 parasangs, or leagues, which was performed in two hundred and fifteen days, after an absence of fifteen months. He was no sooner returned from Cunaxa, than he sought new honours, in following the fortune of Agesilaus in Asia. He enjoyed his confidence, he fought under his standard, and conquered with him in the Asiatic provinces, as well as at the battle of Coronæa. His fame, however, did not escape the aspersions of jealousy, he was publicly banished from Athens for accompanying Cyrus against his brother, and being now without a home, he retired to Scillus, a small town of the Lacedæmonians, in the neighbourhood of Olympia. He died at Corinth in the 90th year of his age, 359 years before the Christian era.

XERES DE LA FRONTERA, a large and ancient town in the south-west of Spain, in Andalusia. It was on a plain adjoining to this town that was fought, in 711, the famous battle between the Moors and the Goths, in which the latter were completely defeated, their king, Roderic, slain, and their empire overturned.

XERXES I., succeeded his father Darius on the throne of Persia, and though but the second son of the monarch, he was preferred to his elder brother Artabazanes. Xerxes continued the warlike preparations of his father, and added the revolted kingdom of Egypt to his extensive possessions. He afterwards invaded Europe, and entered Greece with an army, the most numerous which had ever been collected together in one expedition, but badly armed and disciplined, and encumbered with an useless attendance of servants, women, and eunuchs, was stopped at Thermopylæ, by the valour of three hundred Spartans, and their allies, under king Leonidas. Xerxes astonished that such a handful of men should dare to oppose his progress, ordered some of his soldiers to bring them alive into his presence; but for three successive days the most valiant of the Persian troops were repeatedly defeated in attempting to execute the monarch's injunctions, and the courage of the Spartans might perhaps have triumphed longer, if a Trachinian had

not led a detachment to the top of the mountain, and suddenly fallen upon the devoted Leonidas. The king, himself, nearly perished on this occasion, and it has been reported, that in the night, the desperate Spartans sought, for a while, the royal tent, which they found deserted, and wandered through the Persian army, slaughtering thousands before them. The battle of Thermopylæ was the beginning of the disgrace of Xerxes; the more he advanced, it was to experience new disappointments; his fleet was defeated at Artemisium and Salamis, and though he burnt the deserted city of Athens, and trusted to the artful insinuations of Themistocles, yet he found his myriads unable to conquer a nation that was superior to him in the knowledge of war and maritime affairs. Mortified with the ill success of his expedition, and apprehensive of imminent danger in an enemy's country, Xerxes hastened to Persia, and in thirty days he marched over all that territory which before he had passed with much pomp and parade in the space of six months. Mardonius, the best of his generals, was left behind with an army of 300,000 men, and the rest that had survived the ravages of war, of famine, and pestilence, followed their timid monarch into Thrace, where his steps were marked by the numerous birds of prey that hovered round him, and fed upon the dead carcases of the Persians. When he reached the Hellespont, Xerxes found the bridge of boats which he had erected there, totally destroyed by the storms, and he crossed the straits in a small fishing vessel. Restored to his kingdom and safety, he forgot his dangers, his losses and his defeats, and gave himself up to riot and debauchery. His indolence and luxurious voluptuousness offended his subjects, and Artabanus, the captain of his guards, conspired against him, and murdered him in his bed, in the 21st year of his reign, about 464 years before the Christian era.

XIMENES, (Francis) a Spanish cardinal, was born in 1437, at Torrelaguna, in Old Castille. In 1507, the pope gave him a cardinal's hat, and soon after the king appointed him prime minister, which office he discharged with the greatest honour. He was very successful in the conversion

YOR—ZEN

of the Moors, three thousand of whom were baptized in one day at Grenada. On the death of Ferdinand, in 1516, the cardinal was appointed regent of the kingdom; and one of his first acts was to introduce a reformation in the government. He died, Nov. 8, 1517.

XI-OAM-TI, or **XIUS**, emperor of China, who reigned about 246 years before Christ. Having subdued all China, he carried his victorious arms against the Tartars; and to prevent their incursions, built the famous wall that parts China from Tartary

Y.

YORKTOWN, or **YORK**, a post town of the United States, the capital of York county, remarkable for the capture of Lord Cornwallis and his army, by the Americans, on the 19th October, 1781.

YPRES, a considerable town of the

Netherlands. In 1793 and 1794, this town was exposed to bombardment, from both French and allies; it fell eventually into the power of the former, and remained in their hands until the downfall of Napoleon, in 1814.

Z.

ZAMOSKI, a town in the south-east of Poland. In 1656 it was unsuccessfully besieged by the Swedes; in 1715 it was surprised by the Saxons; and in the civil contests of 1771, the Poles were defeated in its vicinity, by the Prussians. In 1812 it was one of the few towns in which the French left a garrison, after their retreat from Russia.

ZAMOSKI, (John) great chancellor of Poland, and general of the army of that kingdom. He was sent ambassador into France for the duke of Anjou, whom the Poles had chosen king. This prince being recalled to take possession of the kingdom of France, Stephen Bottori, prince of Transylvania, was chosen king of Poland, who had so great a consideration for Zamoski, that he gave his niece to him in marriage, made him chancellor of the kingdom, and first gave him the command of eight thousand men in the war of Muscovy, and afterwards of all the army of Poland. Zamoski acquitted himself in all these employments with much courage and great success.

ZENOBIA, (Septimia), a celebrated princess of Palmyra, who married Odenatus, whom Gallienus acknowledged as his partner on the Roman throne. After the death of her husband, which, according to some authors, she is said to have hastened, Zenobia reigned in the east as regent of her infant children, who were honoured with the title of Cæsars. She

assumed the name of Augusta, and she appeared in imperial robes, and ordered herself to be styled the queen of the east. The troubles which at that time agitated the western parts of the empire, prevented the emperor from checking the insolence and ambition of this princess, who boasted to be sprung from the Ptolemies of Egypt. Aurelian was no sooner invested with the imperial purple, than he marched into the east, determined to punish the pride of Zenobia. He well knew her valour, and he was not ignorant that in her wars against the Persians, she had distinguished herself no less than Odenatus. She was the mistress of the east; Egypt acknowledged her power, and all the provinces of Asia Minor were subject to her command. When Aurelian approached the plains of Syria, the Palmyrean queen appeared at the head of seven hundred thousand men. She bore the labours of the field like the meanest of her soldiers, and walked on foot fearless of danger. Two battles were fought, the courage of the queen gained the superiority, but an imprudent evolution of the Palmyrean cavalry ruined her cause; and while they pursued with spirit the flying enemy, the Roman infantry suddenly fell upon the main body of Zenobia's army, and the defeat was inevitable. The queen fled to Palmyra, determined to support a siege. Aurelian followed her, and after he had almost exhausted his stores, he proposed terms

HISTORY.

of accommodation, which were rejected with disdain by the warlike princess. Her hopes of victory, however, soon vanished, and though she harassed the Romans night and day by continual sallies from her walls, and the working of her military engines, she despaired of success when she heard that the armies which were marching to her relief from Armenia, Persia, and the east, had partly been defeated and partly bribed from her allegiance. She fled from Palmyra in the night; but Aurelian, who was apprised of her escape, pursued her, and she was caught as she was crossing the river Euphrates. She was brought into the presence of Aurelian, and though the soldiers were clamorous for her death, she was reserved to adorn the triumph of the conqueror. She was treated with great humanity, and Aurelian gave her large possessions near Tibur, where she was permitted to live the rest of her days in peace, with all the grandeur and majesty which became a queen of the east, and a warlike princess. Her children were patronized by the emperor, and married to persons of the first distinction at Rome. Zenobia has been admired not only for her military abilities, but also for her literary talents. She has been praised for her great chastity and constancy, though she betrayed too often her propensities to cruelty and intoxication when in the midst of her officers. She fell into the hands of Aurelian about the two hundred and seventy-third year of the Christian era.

ZIETEN, (John Joachim Van,) a Prussian general, was born in 1699. He distinguished himself greatly in the seven years' war, particularly at the battle of Prague, and the storming of the heights of Torgau. He died in 1785.

ZIMISCES, (John,) a noble Armenian, who contributed to the elevation of Nicephorus, but who, instead of being rewarded for his services, was sent into disgraceful exile. He afterwards conspired with the empress, who in person opened the chamber-door of Nicephorus to the conspirators, who massacred him without opposition. Zimisceas was then proclaimed emperor of the East, and afterwards signalled himself in many engagements, but was at length taken

off by poison, in the ninth year of his reign.

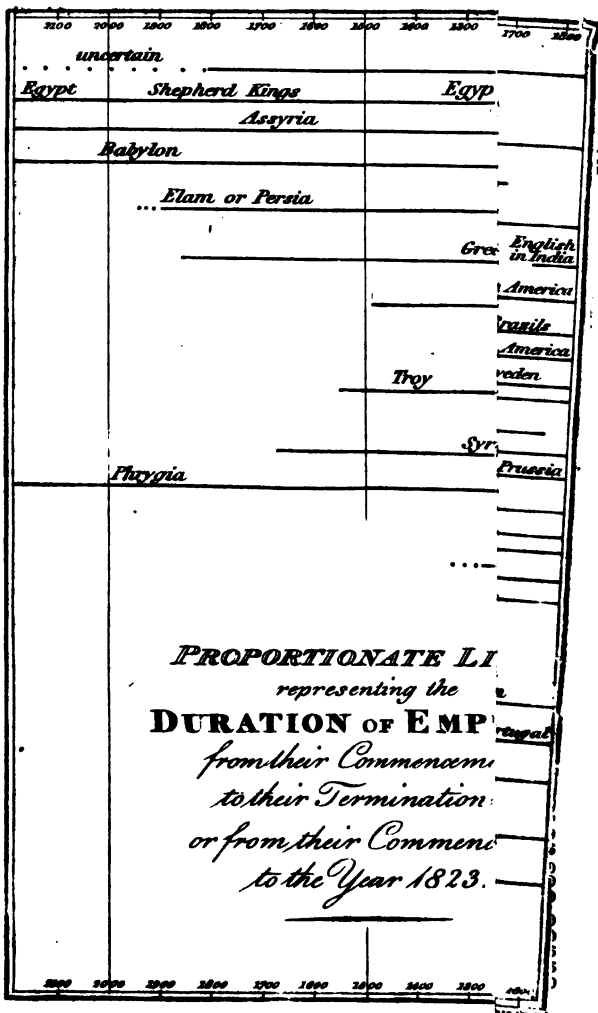
ZISCA, (John,) a courageous German general, who headed the Hussites, and obtained an important victory, but being slain, his skin was made into a drum, to animate the Hussites with the remembrance of his valour.

ZOPYRUS, a Persian, son of Megabyzus, who, to shew his attachment to Darius, the son of Hystaspes, while he besieged Babylon, cut off his ears and nose, and fled to the enemy, telling them that he had received such a treatment from his royal master because he had advised him to raise the siege, as the city was impregnable. This was credited by the Babylonians, and Zopyrus was appointed commander of all their forces. When he had totally gained their confidence, he betrayed the city into the hands of Darius, for which he was liberally rewarded. The regard of Darius for Zopyrus could never be more strongly expressed than in what he used often to say, 'that he had rather have Zopyrus not mutilated than twenty Babelons.'

ZOROASTER, a king of Bactria, supposed to have lived in the age of Ninus, king of Assyria, some time before the Trojan war. He was respected by his subjects and contemporaries for his abilities as a monarch, a lawgiver, and a philosopher, and though many of his doctrines are puerile and ridiculous, yet his followers are still found in numbers in the wilds of Persia, and the extensive provinces of India.

ZORMONDE, a Hungarian, who signalled himself when Henry III. laid siege to the town of Preaburg, to revenge the death of Peter Allemand, king of Hungary. He left the town in the night-time, swam to the emperor's vessels, and bored them so cunningly, that they sunk at break of day, which occasioned the raising of the siege.

ZUTPHEN, an inland town of the Netherlands, province of Gelderland. In the wars of Philip II. Zutphen was besieged in 1572, by the Spaniards, who refusing the citizens a capitulation, entered the town by storm, and committed frightful ravages. It was retaken in 1591, and in this siege sir Philip Sidney was killed.



NEW YORK
PUBLIC LIBRARY
ASTOR, LENOX AND
TILDEN FOUNDATION

MODERN WORKS

IN THE

ENGLISH LANGUAGE

ON

ANCIENT AND HISTORICAL BIOGRAPHY,

With the Prices of the Current Editions.

	£	s.	d.
History of the Conquest of Bourbon and Mauritius, 2 vols, 8vo.	0	8	6
— Fall of the Republic of Venice, 8vo	0	5	0
— Battle of Waterloo, 8vo	0	6	0
— Pindaries, and different Mahratta States, 8vo.	0	7	6
Summary of Geography and History, 8vo	0	14	0
Hannah) History of New England, abridged, 12mo, <i>bd</i>	0	3	0
History of the Jews, 8vo	0	12	0
History of Great Britain, 12mo, <i>bd</i>	0	4	6
Roman History, 12mo, <i>bd</i>	0	4	6
Ancient History, 12mo, <i>bd</i>	0	4	0
Modern History, 12mo, <i>bd</i>	0	4	0
— History of England, 3 vols, 8vo	1	11	6
— France, 2 vols, 8vo.	1	4	0
Annals of the Reign of George III. 2 vols, 8vo.	1	5	0
Memoirs of the Court of Elizabeth, 2 vols, 8vo	1	5	0
— James I. 2 vols, 8vo.	1	4	0
(Charles) History of England, 12mo, <i>bd</i>	0	4	6
Roman History, 12mo, <i>bd</i>	0	4	6
(E.) History of England, 2 vols, 18mo, <i>bd</i>	0	7	0
An Atlas, folio	6	6	0
Irish Histories, 2 vols, 8vo, 1 <i>l.</i> 4 <i>s.</i> — r. p.	2	0	0
son's (Eneas) Journal of the Campaign in Egypt, 4to	2	2	0
ws' (J. P.) History of Great Britain, 1547 to 1603, 2 vols, 8vo	0	18	0
— Continuation of Henry's Great Britain, 2 vols, 8vo	0	18	0
Notes of Bravery in the late War, 4to	10	10	0
is of Great Britain, 1760 to 1801, 3 vols, 8vo	1	7	0
at Register (Doddsley) 1758 to 1790, 32 vols, 8vo.	24	0	0
— (Ottridge, &c.) 1791 to 1819, 29 vols, 8vo	22	6	0
— 1820, 2 vols, 8vo	1	12	0
— (Rivington) 1791 to 1797, 8 vols, 8vo	6	2	0
— 1801 to 1810, 10 vols, 8vo	9	8	0
— 1820, 8vo	0	18	0
atic Annual Register, 1799 to 1810, 12 vols, 8vo	10	3	0
in's Geo-chronology of Europe, 8vo	0	10	6
— Naval and Military Exploits, during Geo. III. 8vo	0	14	0
— Universal History, to death of Alexander, 2 vols, 4to	5	5	0
Senian Letters, during the Peloponnesian War, 2 vols, 4to.	3	3	0
illy's Epitome of Universal History, 2 vols, 8vo	1	1	0
ine's (Edw.) Wars of the French Revolution, 2 vols, 4to	2	0	0
aldwin's History of England, 12mo, <i>bd</i>	0	3	6
— Rome, 12mo, <i>bd</i>	0	3	6
— Greece 12mo, <i>bd</i>	0	5	0

HISTORICAL CATALOGUE.

Bancroft's Life of Washington, 8vo	£ 2 4
Bankes' (Henry) Civil History of Rome, 2 vols, 8vo	0 10 0
Barlow's (Ste.) History of Ireland, 2 vols, 8vo	1 4 0
Barre's History of the French Consulate, 8vo	1 1 0
— Rise and Fall of Bonaparte's Empire, 8vo	0 10 0
Barrett's Life of Cardinal Ximenes, 8vo	0 9 0
Barrington's History of New South Wales, 2 vols, 8vo	1 7 0
Barrow's Chronological History of Arctic Voyages, 8vo	0 12 0
Beaton's Naval and Military Memoirs, 1727 to 1783, 6 vols, 8vo	3 3 0
— Register of the Parliament, 1708 to 1807, 3 vols, 8vo	1 11 0
— Political Index to the Histories of England, &c. 3 vols, 8vo	1 11 0
Beatty's Narrative of Nelson's Death, 8vo, 7s.—r. p.	0 10 0
Beauties of History, by Stretch, 12mo, <i>bd</i>	0 4 0
— Dodd, 12mo, <i>bd</i>	0 4 0
Bell's (James) Tables of Universal History, royal folio, <i>h. bd</i>	1 10 0
Bellenden's Translation of Livy's Roman History, small 4to	2 2 0
Beloe's (Wm.) Herodotus, 4 vols, 8vo	1 16 0
Belsham's History of Great Britain, 1689 to 1799, 3 vols, 4to	3 0 0
— 1689 to 1802, 12 vols, 8vo	6 6 0
Benger's Memoirs of Anne Boleyn, 2 vols, 8vo	0 16 0
Berington's Literary History of the Middle Ages, 4to	2 2 0
Berry's Genealogia Antiqua, small folio, 1 <i>l.</i> 1 <i>s.</i> — <i>l. p.</i>	2 2 0
Berthier's Memoir of Bonaparte's Campaign in Egypt, 8vo.	0 5 0
Bertrand's Annals of the French Revolution, 9 vols, 8vo	3 10 0
— History of Great Britain, to 1763, 4 vols, 8vo	1 16 0
— Abridgment of the above, 12mo, <i>bd</i>	0 5 0
Berwick's Life of the elder Scipio, small 8vo	0 7 0
Bigg's History of Miranda's Attempt in South America, 8vo	0 7 0
Bigland's Letters on Ancient and Modern History, 12mo	0 6 0
— English History, 12mo	0 6 0
— French History, 12mo.	0 6 0
— the Study of History, 12mo, 6 <i>s.</i> —8 <i>vo</i>	0 10 0
— Modern History of Europe, 8vo	0 8 0
— History of Spain, to 1809, 2 vols, 8vo	1 4 0
— Europe, 1783 to 1814, 2 vols, 8vo	1 8 0
— England, to 1814, 2 vols, 8vo	1 16 0
— the Jews, 12mo	0 4 0
Biendi's History of the Civil Wars, between the Houses of York and Lancaster, fol.	0 10 0
Bisset's History of the Reign of George III. 6 vols, 8vo	3 3 0
Blackier's Memoirs of the Mahratta War, 1817-19, 4to, and Maps, &c.	4 14 0
Blagden's Historical Memento of August 1, 1814, 4to	1 11 0
Blair's (John) Chronology, folio, <i>bd. 6<i>l.</i> 6<i>s.</i></i> —with Maps	8 8 0
Blockwell's Memoirs of the Court of Augustus, 3 vols, 4to	2 2 0
Blomfield's (Ezek.) Philosophy of History 4to	1 0 0
Boisgelin's Ancient and Modern Malta, 3 vols, 4to	3 13 0
Bonaparte's (Louis) History of Holland, 3 vols, 8vo	1 16 0
Boone's (J. S.) Essay on the Study of Modern History 8vo	0 8 0
Borel's Memoir of General Pichegru and Moreau, 8vo	0 4 0
Borrelly's Memoirs of Count de Hordt, 2 vols, small 8vo	0 12 0
Bos's Antiquities of Greece, 12mo, <i>bd</i>	0 3 0
Bosset's (Col.) Parga and the Ionian Islands 8vo	0 10 0
Bossuet's Universal History, 8vo, 9 <i>s.</i> —12mo	0 5 0
Bourke's History of the Moors in Spain, 4to	1 1 0
Boyer's History of Queen Anne, fol.	0 10 0
Boyce's Second Usurpation of Bonaparte, 2 vols, 8vo	1 4 0
Bradford's (Rev. W.) Military Events in the Peninsula, imp. 4to.	7 7 0
Brodie's History of the Roman Government, 8vo	0 12 0
— British Empire, 4 vols, 8vo	2 12 0
Brown's (C.) Expedition in 1817 to Venezuela, 8vo	0 7 0
Bruce and Wallace, from two ancient MSS. 2 vols, 4to	6 6 0

HISTORICAL CATALOGUE.

	£	s.	d.
Bullock's (Mrs.) History of the Isle of Man, 8vo	9	15	0
Burdon's Life and Character of Bonaparte, 8vo	0	6	0
Burdy's (Sam.) History of Ireland, to the Union, 8vo	0	10	6
Burke's Campaigns in Germany and Italy, 1805, 8vo	0	7	0
Burnet's (Gilb.) History of his own Time, 4 vols, 8vo, 2l. 2s.—s. p.	3	3	0
— Memorial, offered to Princess Sophia, 8vo	0	6	0
Burney's (James) History of the Buccaneers of America, 4to	1	11	6
— (Wm.) British Neptune, 12mo, 6d	0	7	6
Burton's History of Ireland, small 4to	0	18	0
— Scotland, small 4to	0	18	0
— the House of Orange, small 4to	0	18	0
— Civil Wars, small 8vo	0	18	0
Butler's Revolutions of the Empire of Germany, 8vo	0	12	0
Burleigh's (Lord) State Papers during the Reigns of Henry VIII.			
Burnett's (Bishop) the Reformation of the Church of England, 3 v.			
fol.	5	10	0
— Supplement to Tacitus, 8vo, 16s.—l. p.	1	12	6
Campbell's (John) Lives of the Admirals, 8 vols, 8vo 4l. 16s.—r. p.	7	4	0
Caradoc's History of Wales, augmented by Wynne, 8vo	0	18	0
Card's Revolutions of Russia, 8vo	0	12	6
— Reign of Charlemagne, 8vo	0	6	0
Carriere's Summary of the History of France, 2 vols, 12mo, 6d	0	6	0
Caulfield's History of the Gunpowder Plot, small 8vo	0	5	0
Cayley's Life of Sir Walter Raleigh, 2 vols. 4to, 14. 16s. — 2 vs, 8vo.	1	1	0
— Thomas Moore, 2 vols, 4to	2	2	0
Chad's Revolution in Holland, 1813, 8vo	0	9	6
Chalmers' Life of Mary Queen of Scots, 3 vols, 8vo, 2l. 8s.—2 vols, 4to	3	13	6
Chandler's History of Illium, or Troy, 4to	0	10	6
Charneck's Memoirs of Admiral Lord Nelson, 8vo	0	10	6
Chateaubriand's Revolutions of Empires, 8vo	0	12	0
— Life of the Duke de Berry, 8vo	0	7	6
Chatfield's Historical Review of the State of Hindoestan, 4to.	1	16	0
Chronicle of the Kings of Britain, from the Welsh, 4to	8	2	0
Chronological History of England, 1066 to 1688, 8vo.	0	10	6
— Tablets, 18mo	0	3	9
Chronology of the last Fifty Years, brought down from year to year,	0	15	0
Churchill's (T. O.) Life of Lord Nelson, royal 4to	2	12	6
Clarendon's (Lord) Civil Wars, 6 vols, royal 4to, sh. 7l. 17s. 6d. l. p.	15	15	0
— Life, 2 vols, royal 4to, sh. 2l. 18s.—l. p.	6	6	0
Clark and Macarthur's Life of Lord Nelson, 2 vols, imp. 4to	9	9	0
Clarkson's Memoirs of Wm. Penn, 2 vols, 8vo	1	4	0
Coins of the Seleucidæ, Kings of Syria, royal 4to	2	2	0
Coke's (Tho.) History of the West Indies, 3 vols, 8vo	1	4	0
Collection of State Papers on the War with France, 11 vols, 8vo	7	7	0
Collins' (Arthur) Peerage of England by Brydges, 9 vols, 8vo	9	9	0
Conde's (Prince of) Memoirs of the Great Conde, 8vo	0	9	0
Cook's (James) Three Voyages, 7 vols, 12mo, 2l. 2s.—7 vols, 8vo,	3	13	6
Coote's History of Europe, 1763 to 1802, 8vo	0	12	0
— 1802 to 1815, 8vo	0	12	0
— England, to 1783, 9 vols, 8vo	3	12	0
— 1783 to 1802, 8vo	0	8	0
Correspondence, Political and Confidential of Louis XVI. 3 vols, 8vo	1	1	0
Coxe's Memoirs of Sir Robert Walpole, 4 vols, 8vo	2	8	0
— Horatio, Lord Walpole, 2 vols, 8vo	1	6	0
— John, Duke of Marlborough, 3 vols, 4to	9	9	0
— Ditto, 6 vols, 8vo, and Atlas, 4to	5	5	0
— the Kings of Spain, 1700 to 1788, 5 vols, 8vo	3	0	0
— Correspondence of the Duke of Shrewsbury, 4to	3	3	0
Coxe's History of the House of Austria, 3 vols, 4to, sh. 5s.—5 v. 8vo	3	12	6
Crantz' History of Greenland, with Additions, 2 vols, 8vo	1	1	0

HISTORICAL CATALOGUE.

Crawford's (John) History of the Indian Archipelago, 3 v. 8vo.	2	12	0
Crevier's History of the Roman Emperors, 10 vols. 8vo.	4	0	0
Cromwell's (Oliver) Mem. of the Protector, 4to, 3l. 3s. 2 vols. 8vo	1	8	0
— Oliver Cromwell and his Times, 8vo	0	16	0
Culloden Papers, 1625 to 1745, royal 4to	3	3	0
Curtius' History of Alexander the Great, with Notes, 2 vols, 8vo	1	5	0
Dalrymple's (David) Annals of Scotland, 3 vols. 8vo	1	11	6
Davis' (J. B.) History of Nice, 8vo	0	8	0
Davy's (John) Account of Ceylon, 4to	3	13	6
Douglas' (Rob.) Baronage of Scotland, folio, 2l. 2s.—1. p.	3	3	0
— Peerage of Scotland, by Wood, 2 vol. folio, 10l. 10s.—1. p.	15	15	0
Drummond's Review of Governments of Sparta and Athens, 8vo	0	6	0
Duncan's (Wm.) Cesar's Commentaries, 2 vols, 8vo	0	18	0
Duchelde's History of China, 2 vols, fol.	3	3	0
Elphinstone's Account of Caubul, 4to, 3l. 13s. 6d.—2 vols, 8vo	2	2	0
Erskine's Speeches on the Liberty of the Press, &c. 5 vols, 8vo	2	10	0
Estrada's History of the Revolution in Spain, 8vo	0	5	0
Eugene's (Prince) Memoirs, 8vo, 7s. 6d.—with Notes, 8vo	0	10	6
Evelyn's (John) Memoirs, by Bray, 2 vols, royal 4to	5	15	6
Fabyan's Chronicles of England and France, royal 4to	3	3	0
Fell's (R.) Memoirs of the Public Life of C. J. Fox, 4to	1	11	6
— (Wm.) Sketch of Events in English History, 12mo.	0	5	6
Ferishta's Hist. of the Moham. Conquerors in Hindoostan, 3 v. 8vo	1	7	0
Fleury's Memoirs of Napoleon, in 1815, 2 vols, 8vo	1	4	0
Flinter's History of the Revolution of Caracas, 8vo	0	7	0
Fox's (C. J.) History of the Reign of James II. 4to. 1l. 16s.—r. p.	2	12	6
— Speeches in Parliament, 6 vols, 8vo	4	4	0
Franklin's Memoirs, &c. by W. T. Franklin, 6 vols, 8vo	3	12	0
— Private Correspondence, 4to, 2l. 2s.—2 vols, 8vo.	1	8	0
Froissart's Chronicles, by Johnes, 12 vols, 8vo.	7	4	0
— Lord Berner's, 2 vols royal 4to	7	7	0
Fry's Legend of Mary Queen of Scots, 8vo, 7s.—4to	1	1	0
Fuller's Church History, fol.	3	3	0
— Worthies of England, fol. 3l. 3s.—2 vols, 4to	4	4	0
Galt's Life of Cardinal Wolsey, 4to	1	1	0
— Pictures from Eng. Scotch and Irish History, 2 vols, 12mo, 8d	0	14	0
Gentz' State of Europe before and after the French Revolution, 8vo	0	8	0
Geoffroy's Memoir and Chart of Madagascar, 4to	0	18	0
Gesner's Horace, 8vo, 12s.—with Bentley's Index	0	16	0
Gibbon's Hist. of the Roman Empire, 12 v. 12mo, 2. 8s.—12 v. 8vo.	4	4	0
Gifford's History of France, to 1794, 5 vols, 4to	10	10	0
— Life of Wm. Pitt, 3 vols, royal 4to, 8l. 8s.—6 vols, 8vo	4	4	0
— (Edw.) Life and Campaigns of Buonaparte, 2 vols, 8vo	1	5	0
— (C. H.) History of the Wars, 1792 to 1815, 4to	1	11	6
Gillies' History of Greece, 8 vols, 8vo.	3	18	0
— the World, 2 vols, 4to	4	4	0
Godwin's Life and Age of Chaucer, 4 vols, 8vo, 1l. 16s.—2 vols, 4to	3	13	0
Goerres' Germany and the Revolution, 8vo	0	10	6
Goldsmith's Roman History, 2 vols, 8vo	0	10	0
— Grecian History, 2 vols, 8vo	0	14	0
— (Lewis) Secret History of Bonaparte's Cabinet, 8vo	0	16	0
Gordon's (James) History of Ireland, 2 vols, 8vo	1	4	0
— History of the Irish Rebellion, 1798, &c. 8vo	0	9	6
— British Islands, 4 vols, 8vo	2	5	6
Grafton's Chronicle of England, 2 vols, royal 4to	4	4	0
Granger's Biographical History, 4 vols, 8vo, 1l. 8s.—r. p.	2	2	0
Grant's (Baron) History of Mauritius, &c. 4to	1	16	0
Grimstone's History of Spain, fol.	1	11	0
Grose's Antiquities of England, 8 vols, roy. 8vo, 10l. 10s.—8 vols, 4to 2l. 0 0	21	0	0

HISTORICAL CATALOGUE.

Grose's Antiquities of Scotland, 2 vols, roy. 8vo, 8l. 6s.—2 vols, 4to	£ s. d. 7 17 6
Ireland, 2 vols, roy. 8vo, 8l. 8s.—2 vols, 4to	12 12 0
Hallam's State of Europe, in the Middle Ages, 3 vols, 8vo	1 16 0
Hall's (Ric.) Chronicle of England, royal 4to	3 3 0
Halliday's Present State of Portugal, 1812, 8vo	0 12 0
(And.) (History of the House of Guelph, 4to	2 10 0
Hamilton's (Fra.) Account of Nepal, 4to	2 2 0
Hampton's Polybius' History, 3 vols, 8vo	1 7 0
Hardyng's Chronicle, with Grafton's Continuation, royal 4to	3 3 0
Harris's (Wm.) Lives of James I. Charles, I. &c. 5 vols, 8vo	3 0 0
Harte's (Walter) Life of Augustus Adolphus, 2 vols, 8vo	1 5 0
Harwood's (Tho.) Grecian Antiquities, 8vo	0 9 0
Hearne's (Tho.) Chronicles, 4 vols, 8vo	3 0 0
and Byrne's Antiquities of Great Britain, 2 vols, folio	10 10 0
Henderson's (James) History of Brazil, 4to	3 13 6
Henry's (Rob.) History of Great Britain, 12 vols, 8vo	4 4 0
Herbert's (Sir T.) Memoirs of last Two Years of Charles I. sm. 8vo	0 10 6
Heriot's History of Canada, 8vo	0 12 0
Heywood's Vindication of Fox's History of James II. 4to	1 16 0
Distinctions in Society under the Anglo-Saxons, 8vo	0 18 0
Historic Gallery of Portraits and Paintings, 7 v. 8vo, 8l. 8s.—7 v. 4to	15 15 0
History of Ceylon to 1815, and Knox's Narrative, 4to	2 12 0
St. Domingo, 8vo	0 12 0
New South Wales, 8vo	0 14 6
Madeira, with 27 coloured Engravings, imp. 8vo. A. 8d.	2 2 0
Guy, Earl of Warwick, small 8vo.	0 7 6
France to the Revolution, 3 vols, 8vo	1 4 0
India, from capital Pictures, 2 vols, folio	21 0 0
the Jesuits, 2 vols, 8vo	1 4 0
Inquisition, 4to, 2l. 12s. 6d.—r. p.	4 4 0
Abridged 8vo	0 13 6
Azores, or Western Islands, 4to	1 11 6
Civil Wars of Granada, 8vo	0 7 0
and Life of King James VI. 8vo	0 10 0
Hobbes' (Tho.) Thycydides, 8vo	0 12 0
Hobhouse's Last Reign of the Emperor Napoleon, 2 vols, 8vo	1 4 0
Holinshed's Scottish Chronicle, 2 vols, 4to	1 10 0
Chronicles of England, Scotland, and Ireland, 6 vols, 4to	12 12 0
Home's (John) History of the Rebellion, in 1745, 12mo	0 5 0
Hooke's Roman History, with Maps, &c. 11 vols, 8vo	5 15 6
Howard's (Geo.) Lady Jane Grey, and her Times, small 8vo.	0 12 0
Hue's Last Years of Louis XVI. 8vo	0 10 6
Hume's History of England, 8 vols, 8vo, 3l. 4s. r. p.	5 12 0
Ditto, with Plates and Wood-cuts, 10 vols, 8vo	7 0 0
Smollett's Continuation. 20 vols, 18mo	3 10 0
Alterations, &c. by Mitchell, 8 vols, 8vo	3 12 6
History of the House of Angus and Douglas, 2 vols, 12mo	1 11 6
Jackson's (J. G.) Account of the Empire of Morocco, &c. 4to	2 12 6
James' Naval History, 1793 to 1820, vols, 1, 2, 8vo, Tables 4to	1 16 0
Jones' (J. T.) War in Spain, &c. 1808 to 1814, 2 vols, 8vo	1 10 0
Journals of Bonaparte's 18 Campaigns, 2 vols, royal 8vo	1 8 0
Junius' Letters, 18mo, 6s.—8vo, 12s.—2 vols, post 12mo	0 12 0
by Woodfall, with Fac-similies, 3 v. 8vo. 2l. 2s.—r. p.	3 3 0
Kerr's History of Scotland, Reign of Robert I, 2 vols, 8vo.	1 6 0
King's Observations on Ancient Castles, 4 vols, folio	16 16 0
Knight's Description of Latium, 4to	1 11 6
Knolles's History of the Turks, 3 vols, fol.	4 14 0
Kirkpatrick's Account of Nepaul, 4to	3 3 0
Scotland, 2 vols, fol.	2 10 0

HISTORICAL CATALOGUE.

Lalag's (Malcolm) History of Scotland, 4 vols, 8vo	7 16 0
Lament's Chronicle of Fife, 1649 to 1672, 4to	3 3 0
Landmann's (Geo.) Observations on Portugal, 2 vols, imp, 4to	15 15 0
Leland's (Tho.) History of Ireland, 3 vols, 8vo	1 11 6
Life of Philip of Macedon, 2 vols, 8vo	0 16 0
Life of James II. of England, from the Stuart MSS. 2 vols, 4to	6 6 0
— Sir Julius Cesar, Knt. with Portraits, eleph. 4to	3 3 0
— and Memoirs of Louis XIV, 2 vols, 8vo	0 14 0
Lingard's (John) History of England, to 1853, 4 vols, 4to	6 10 0
Lindsay's (Rob.) Chronicles of Scotland, 2 vols, 8vo	1 1 0
Littlebury's Herodotus, 8vo	0 14 0
Lockhart's Papers, on Scotch Affairs, 1702 to 1715, 2 vols, 4to	5 5 0
Luffman's Elements of History and Chronology, 2 vols, 8vo	0 10 0
Ludolphus's History of Ethiopi, fol.	0 14 0
Lyttleton's (Lord) History of Henry II. 6 vols, 8vo	1 16 0
Maediarmid's Lives of British Statesmen, 2 vols, 8vo	1 4 0
Maftland's History of London, 2 vols, fol.	4 4 0
Malcolm's History of Persia, 2 vols, royal 4to	8 8 0
— Political History of India, 1784 to 1812, royal 8vo	0 18 0
Marsden's (Wm.) History of Sumatra, 4to, and Plates, large folio	3 13 0
Marshall's (John) Life of Washington, 5 vols, 8vo, 3l.—5 vols, 4to	7 17 6
Maseres' Tracts on the Civil Wars, Charles I. 2 vols, royal 8vo	1 8 0
Maurice's Ancient History of Hindoostan, 2 vols, 4to	4 4 0
— Modern History of Hindoostan, 2 vols, 4to	5 5 0
Mayors' Universal History, 25 vols, 18mo, 5l. 12s. 6d.—l. p.	7 10 0
— Grecian History, 2 vols, 12mo, bd	0 9 0
— Roman History, 3 vols, 12mo, bd	0 13 6
Mayo's View of Universal History, 4 vols, 4to	5 5 0
Memoirs of James II. of England, 2 vols, small 8vo	0 16 0
— Lucien Bonaparte, 2 vols, 8vo	0 18 0
— Oliver Cromwell and his children, 3 vols, 12mo	0 19 0
— Margaret de Valois, 2 vols, 12mo	0 12 0
— Charles Maurice Talleyrand, 2 vols, 12mo	0 18 0
— the Political and Private Life of Bonaparte, 12mo	0 7 0
— Revolution in France, 8vo	0 10 6
Mill's History of British India, 3 vols, 4to, 6l. 6s.—4 vols, 8vo	3 12 0
Miller's (Geo.) Lectures on Modern History, 4 vols, 8vo	2 8 0
Mills' (Cha.) History of Mohamedanism, 8vo	0 12 0
— the Crusades, 2 vols, 8vo	1 4 0
Milton's History of Britain to the Norman Conquest, royal 8vo	0 12 0
Mitford's History of Greece, 10 vols, 8vo, 5l. 5s.—5 vols, 4to	9 0 0
Modern Naval Achievements of Britain and her Allies, el. 4to, A. bd.	13 13 0
— Military Achievements of Ditto, el. 4to, A. bd.	13 13 0
Molina's History of Chili, 2 vols, 8vo	0 18 0
Monarchy Reviv'd, the History of Charles II. 8vo	0 16 0
Monstrelet's Chronicles of France, England, Scotland, &c. 6 vols, 4to, 10l. 10s.—12 vols, 8vo	6 6 0
Moore's (Geo.) Lives of Alberoni, Ripperda, and Pombal, 8vo	0 12 0
— History of the British Revolution, 1688-9, 8vo	0 14 0
— (Jam.) Nar. of Sir John Moore's Campaign, 8vo, 12s.—4to	1 11 6
Mores' History of Richard III, small 8vo, 18s.—royal 8vo	2 2 0
Muller's (J. V.) Universal History, 3 vols, 8vo	1 16 0
Murphy's History of the Mahometan Empire in Spain, 4to	1 15 0
— (Arthur) Tacitus, 8 vols, 8vo, 4l. 4s.—r. p.	6 0 0
— Sallust, 8vo	0 8 0
Naval History of Great Britain, to 1816, 8 vols, 8vo, 6l. 6s.—r. p.	8 8 0
Naylor's History of Helvetia, 4 vols, 8vo	1 16 0
— Germany, 3 vols, 8vo	1 10 0
New Annual Register, 1780 to 1821, 43 vols, 8vo	43 4 0
Nicholl's (John) Public Affairs of George III. 2 vols, 8vo	0 18 0

HISTORICAL CATALOGUE.

O'Connor's Chronicles of Bri.	2 vols, 8vo, 1l. 7s.—r. p.	1 15 0
O'Halloran's History of Ireland,	3 vols, 8vo	1 11 0
O'Hara's History of New South Wales,	8vo	0 14 0
Orme's History of Military Transactions in Hindoostan,	3 vols, 4to	3 15 0
—— Historical Fragments of Hindoostan,	4to	1 8 0
Palmer's (A. T.) Life of Sobieski, King of Poland,	8vo	0 12 0
Pinkerton's (John) History of Scotland, before 1056,	2 vols, 8vo	1 15 0
Playfair's (James) System of Chronology, folio	—	2 12 6
—— Inquiry into the Fall of Nations, 4to	—	1 11 6
Pleowden's Review of the State of Ireland, 3 vols, 4to	—	4 4 0
—— History of Ireland, 1172 to 1800, 2 vols, 8vo	—	1 4 0
—— 1801 to 1810, 3 vols, 8vo	—	1 11 0
Pontoppidan's Natural History of Norway, fol.	—	3 10 0
Potter's (John) Antiquities of Greece, by Dunbar,	2 vols, 8vo	1 6 0
Power's (Geo.) History of the Mooselmuns in Spain,	8vo	0 10 6
Poyer's History of Barbados, 4to	—	1 11 6
Price's (David) Memoirs of Mohamedan History, 3 vols, 4to	—	7 17 0
Raffles' (T. S.) History of Java, 2 vols, 4to, 6l. 6s.—r. p.	—	8 8 0
Ralfe's Naval Chronology, 3 vols, roy. 8vo, 6l. 6s.—coloured	—	0 9 0
Ramsay's (David) Life of Washington, 8vo	—	0 9 0
Rejd's (W. H.) History of Hanover, r. 4to	—	3 12 6
Raleigh's History of the World, 2 vols, fol.	—	3 2 0
Rapin's History of England, and Tindal's continuation, 5 vols, folio,	—	7 7 0
6l. 15s. and 2l. 8vo	—	0 19 6
Rennel's Memoir of a Map of Hindoostan, 4to	—	0 7 6
—— the Peninsula of India, 4to	—	0 14 0
Revival of the Roman and Greek Empires, 2 vols, 8vo	—	1 11 0
Ridpath's Border History of England and Scotland, 4to	—	1 1 0
Rival Roses, or Wars of York and Lancaster, 2 vols, 8vo	—	0 19 6
Robertson's History of America, 3 vols, 8vo	—	0 19 6
—— Charles V. 3 vols, 8vo	—	0 19 6
—— Scotland, 3 vols, 8vo	—	1 4 0
Robinson's (W. D.) Revolution of Mexico, 2 vols, 8vo	—	0 7 0
—— Ancient History, 12mo, bd.	—	0 8 0
—— Modern History, 12mo, bd.	—	3 13 6
Roger's (Eliza) Lives of the Twelve Cæsars, 5 vols, 8vo, and Atlas	—	2 6 0
Rollin's Ancient History, 8 vols, 8vo, 3l. 4s.—12 vols, 18mo	—	3 3 0
Roscoe's Life of Pope Leo X. 6 vols, 8vo	—	1 11 6
—— Lorenzo de Medici, 3 vols, 8vo	—	0 9 0
Rose's (Wm.) Sallust, 8vo	—	0 12 6
Russell's Life and Correspondence, 4to, 1l. 5s.—8vo	—	1 1 6
—— (Lord J.) Life of W. Lord Russel, 4to, 3l. 6d., 2 vols, 8vo	—	2 2 0
—— (Wm.) History of Ancient Europe. 3 vols, 8vo	—	2 12 6
—— History of Modern Europe, to 1763, 5 vols, 8vo	—	3 12 0
—— (Alex.) History of Aleppo, 2 vols, 4to	—	5 6 0
Sadler's (Ralph) State Papers, by Scott, 2 vols, 4to	—	0 12 0
Sarrazin's (Gen.) History of the War in Spain, 1807-14, 8vo	—	2 2 0
Schomberg's (Isaac) Naval Chronology, 5 vols, 8vo	—	12 13 0
Scott's Border Antiquities of England and Scot. 2 vols, 4to, 9l.—i. p.	—	0 14 0
Secret Memoirs of the Court of Petersburg, 2 vols, 8vo	—	2 2 0
—— James I. 2 vols, 8vo, 1l. 4s.—r. p.	—	1 1 0
Segur's Events of the Reign of Frederick William II. 3 vols, 8vo	—	0 12 0
Sketches, on the Intrinsic Strength of France and Russia, 4to	—	0 8 0
—— History, Politics, and Manners in Ireland, 8vo	—	0 7 0
—— France, Belgium, and Spa, 1771 and 1816, 8vo	—	0 7 0
—— the Manners of the Romans, 12mo	—	1 1 0
Smith's Thucydides, 2 vols, 8vo	—	0 10 0
—— Xenophon on the Affairs of Greece, 8vo	—	1 7 0
—— Inquiry into the Wealth of Nations, by Playfair, 3 vols, 8vo	—	3 10 0
Smollett's Continuation of Hume's History, 5 vols, 8vo, 2l.—r. p.	—	

HISTORICAL CATALOGUE.

Smollett's Continuation, with Portraits and Wood-cuts, 6 vols, 8vo	4	4	0
Somer's (Lord) Tracts, by Scott, 13 vols, royal 4to	40	0	0
Soulavie's Court of France, Time of Madame Pompadour, 8vo	0	10	6
Memoirs of the Reign of Louis XVI. 6 vols, 8vo	2	8	0
Southey's History of Brazil, 3 vols, 4to	7	15	0
Letters from Spain and Portugal. 2 vols, 12mo	0	10	6
Life of Lord Nelson, 2 vols, 12mo, 10s—2 vols, small 8vo	0	15	0
Spelman's Xenophon's Expedition of Cyrus, 12mo, 7s—8vo	0	12	6
Stael's Considerations on the French Revolution, 3 vols, 8vo	1	16	0
Stanhope's Battle of Platæa, royal 8vo, 7s—with plates, folio	1	8	0
Staunton's (Geo.) British Embassy to China, 2 vs, 4to, and Cuts, folio	6	6	0
Stephens' History of the Wars, 1792 to 1802, 2 vols, 4to	3	3	0
Steuart's (Henry) Sallust, 2 vols, royal 4to	4	12	0
Stow's Survey of London, various editions and sizes, from 15s. to	12	12	0
Chronicle of England, fol.	3	3	0
Sully's (Duke of) Memoirs, 5 vols, 8vo	2	12	0
Memoirs, by Catharine Lennox, 5 vols, royal 8vo	3	13	0
Summary of Ancient History, to A.D. 476, 12mo, 6d	0	4	0
Tacitus's Annals, 4 vols, 8vo	2	2	0
Temple's (John) History of the Irish Rebellion, 4to	0	16	0
Thomson's (Geo.) Spirit of General History, 8vo, 6d	0	9	0
Thorn's Memoir of the Conquest of Java, royal 4to	3	3	0
War in India, 1803-6, 4to	2	12	6
Toland's History of the Druids, by Huddleston, 8vo	0	12	0
Toplis' Genealogical History of the English Sovereigns, 4to	0	16	0
Tooke's History of Russia, 4 vols, 8vo	1	8	0
Truaxler's Chronology, 3 vols, 12mo, 6d	0	18	0
Turner's History of England, 1066 to 1422, 2 vols, 4to	3	18	0
the Anglo-Saxons, 3 vols, 8vo	2	18	0
Tytler's Elements of General History, 2 vols, 8vo	0	16	0
Ditto, vol 3, by Dr. Nares, 8vo	0	10	6
Vaness' Life of Bonaparte, with Portraits, 7 vols, 8vo	4	4	0
Volney's Lectures on History, 12mo	0	3	6
Researches in Ancient History, 2 vols, 8vo	1	5	6
New Researches in History, 2 vols, 8vo	1	5	0
Ruins, or Revolutions of Empires, 8vo	0	10	6
Voltaire's Universal History, 6 vols, 12mo	1	4	0
Life of Charles XII. 12mo, 6s. 6d.—8vo, 10s 6d, and r. p.	1	2	6
Peter the Great, 12mo	0	5	0
History of Russia, under Peter I. 2 vols, 8vo	0	12	0
Europe, 3 vols, 8vo	0	15	0
Waldegrave's (Earl) Memoirs, 1754 to 1757, small 4to	1	5	0
Wanley's General History of Man, 4to, 1l. 10s—2 vols, royal 8vo	1	1	0
Ward's (Wm.) View of the History, &c. of the Hindoos, 3 vols, 8vo	1	16	0
Warings' (E. S.) History of the Mahrattas, 4to	0	18	0
Watkin's Memoirs of R.B. Sheridan, 2 vols, 4to, 3l 3s—2 vols, 8vo	1	8	0
Ware's History of Ireland, 2 vols, fol.	9	9	0
Whitaker's (E. W.) Universal History, to 1763, 2 vols, 4to	8	8	0
Whitelock's Memorials of English Affairs, from the beginning of the Reign of Charles I. to the restoration of Charles II.	4	14	6
Wilkins' (Wm.) Antiquities of Magna Græcia, imp. folio	10	10	0
Remarks on Athens, 8vo	0	12	0
(Geo.) History of the Destruction of Jerusalem, 8vo	0	10	6
Wilks' Historical Sketches of the South of India, 3 vols, 4to	6	6	0
Wilks' (Mark) Historical Sketches of the South of India, 3 vols, 4to	6	6	0
William of Malmesbury's History, by Sharp, royal 4to	3	3	0
Wraxall's History of France, 1364 to 1574, 2 vols, 8vo	0	16	0
1574 to 1610, 6 vols, 8vo	3	12	0
Memoirs of the Courts of Berlin, &c. 2 vols, 8vo	0	16	6

HISTORICAL CATALOGUE.

		£ s. d.
Xenophon's History of the Retreat of the Ten Thousand Greeks,		
various sizes and prices		
Young's (Wm.) Political History of Athens, 8vo		0 10 0
Zeigehirt's (Sophia) Roman History, 2 vols, 12mo		0 16 0
Zschokke's History of the Invasion of Switzerland, 8vo		0 7 0
Zuniga's History of the Philippine Islands, by Maver, 2 vols, 8vo		1 1 0

CLASSICAL HISTORIANS.

With the Prices of the Current Editions.

		£ s. d.
Bævi Thucydides, Gr. & Lat. 4 vols, 8vo		
Thucydides Orationes, 12mo		0 6 0
Bedæ Historia Ecclesiastica, fol.		3 3 0
Brotier's Tacitus, by Valpy, 5 vols, 8vo, 37 5s.—1. p.		5 0 0
Cæsar, with Hirtius, &c. 18mo		0 7 6
Cæsar's Commentaries of the Wars in Gaul, fol.		5 5 0
Carrieres' Histoire de France, 12mo, 6d		0 6 6
Ditto, Fr. and Eng. 2 vols, 8vo		0 14 0
Crevier's Livy, 6 vols, 8vo, 2l. 2s.—1. p.		3 3 0
Diodorus Siculus, in a variety of languages, sizes and prices		
Dionysius Halicarnasensis, in a variety of languages, sizes and prices		
Grannon's History of Naples, 2 vols, folio		2 12 6
Guiccardini's History of Italy, 16 vols, 8vo		3 10 0
History of Italy, Italian, 10 vols, 8vo		3 10 0
Herodotus, 2 vols, 18mo, 14s.—2 vols, 8vo		1 1 0
Gr. et Lat. 3 vols, 8vo, 1l. 10s.—1. p.		3 3 0
cum varietas Lectionis et Annotationes, 4 vols 8vo		2 12 6
Histoire de Charles XII. 12mo, 6d		0 4 0
Josephus's History of the Jews in almost every language, and various prices		
Levisag's Grammaire Philosophique et Littéraire, 8vo		0 6 0
Livii Historia, 6 vols, 12mo, 4l. 2s.—5 vols, 18mo		1 10 0
with Crevier's Notes, 4 vols, 8vo		2 8 0
Livy's Roman History, various languages, sizes and prices		
Mezerai Histoire de France, 3 tom. fol.		10 10 0
Montfaucon Antiquité Expliquée et Représentée en Figures avec le Supplement, et les Monumens, 20 tom. fol.		42 0 0
Nepotis (Cor.) Vitæ, cum Frag. Var. Lect. 12mo, 4l. 4s.—1. p.		0 6 0
Plutarch's Lives in various languages, sizes and prices		
Polybius's General History, 4 vols, 8vo		2 12 6
Sallust, and Justin, 18mo		0 7 0
Schweighæuser's Herodotus, 2 vols, 8vo		1 1 0
Annotations on Herodotus, 2 vols, 8vo		1 11 6
Herodotus, Gr. et Lat. with Annot. 6 vols, 8vo		3 13 0
Tacitus, with Brotier's Supplements, 3 vols, 18mo		0 16 6
Thucydides cum Scholi et Annotationes, 4 vols, 8vo		2 12 6
Gr. et Lat. cum Annotationes, 4 vols, 8vo, 3l. 3s.—1. p.		4 14 6
Thunani Historiarum sui Temporis, 7 vols, fol.		7 7 0

PUBLISHED BY
SIR RICHARD PHILLIPS AND Co.

1

The Illustrated
BIBLES, TESTAMENTS,
AND
COMMON PRAYER-BOOKS,

Of all Sizes, and adapted to Bibles in all Languages.

BIBLES, with 265 Engravings.

TESTAMENTS, with 97 Engravings.

COMMON PRAYERS, with 49 and 65 Engravings.

**THE OXFORD, THE CAMBRIDGE, AND KING'S
PRINTER'S EDITIONS,**

Of all sized Bibles, Testaments, and Common Prayers, illustrated with the number of Engravings above specified, from Drawings by Craig, after Paintings of the great Masters, have just been published, and may be seen, in various Bindings, at the Shops of all respectable Booksellers and Stationers.

BIBLES OF THE LARGE OCTAVO

Size, illustrated with 265 Engravings, may be had at 20s. Bound

BIBLES IN SMALL OCTAVO,

Also, with 241 Engravings, at 15s. Bound.

BIBLES IN DUODECIMO,

With 241 Engravings, at 10s. Bound

POCKET BIBLES,

With 169 picked Engravings, in one Volume, at 20s. in Morocco

TESTAMENTS IN DUODECIMO,

(The Edition used in Schools), with 97 Engravings, at 4s

COMMON PRAYER-BOOKS,

32mo. and 24mo.

With 49 or 65 Engravings, at from 4s. 6d. to 10s. 6d.

